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Contributions to Knowledge made by Instructors and Advanced Students of the University



VOLUME VII

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Table of Contents

VOLUME VII

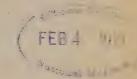
- 44. THE FISHES OF LAKE VALENCIA, CARACAS, AND OF THE RIO TUY AT EL CONCEJO, VENEZUELA.
- 45. SOUTH AMERICA WEST OF THE MARACAIBO, ORINOCO, AMAZON, AND TITICACA BASINS, AND THE HORIZONTAL DISTRIBUTION OF ITS FRESH-WATER FISHES.
- 46. The Fishes of the Rivers Draining the Western Slope of the Cordillera Occidental of Colombia, Rios Atrato, San Juan, Dagua, and Patia.
- 47. THE FRESH-WATER FISHES OF PANAMA EAST OF LONGITUDE 80° W.

 THE MAGDALENA BASIN AND THE HORIZONTAL AND VERTICAL
 DISTRIBUTION OF ITS FISHES.
 - -By Carl H. Eigenmann, Ph.D., Dean of the Graduate School, Indiana University.



INDIANA UNIVERSITY STUDIES





STUDY No. 44

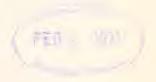
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STUDY No. 44

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The Fishes of Lake Valencia, Caracas, and of the Rio Tuy at El Concejo, Venezuela

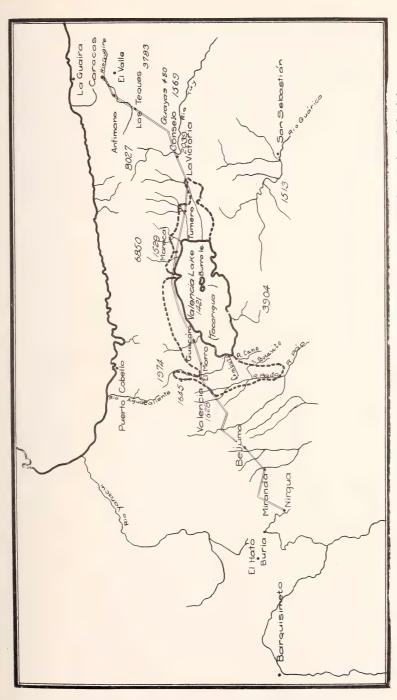
By Carl H. Eigenmann, Dean of the Graduate School, and Head of the Department of Zoölogy in Indiana University

LITTLE is known concerning the fishes about Caracas, less of those of Lake Valencia (1,421 feet) to the west of it, and still less of the Tuy flowing eastward into an indentation of the Caribbean. Dr. A. S. Pearse of the University of Wisconsin made a collection of fishes in these localities in July and August, 1918. He collected on the Isla del Buro in Lake Valencia on July 9-12, at Maracay, 1,530 feet, in the lake on July 25, in the Rio Tapa Tapa on July 15, in the Rio Castaño on July 16, 27, and in the Rio Bue on July 19, 20, 29, 30. At El Concejo, 2,040 feet, a station between Maracay and Caracas, he collected in the Rio Tiquirito, a tributary of the Tuy on August 1, at its mouth on August 2, and in the Tuy on August 1. Collections were made near Caracas in the Guaire basin on August 4.

Lake Valencia is of particular interest. It was formerly considerably larger and drained regularly thru the Rio Paito and Rio Pao into the Orinoco. It has in historic times become land-locked with occasional overflows. With its tributaries it formed the northernmost sources of the Orinoco basin.

Sievers Cordillere von Merida, p. 119, says:

Bisher hat man das Becken des Sees von Valencia als ein besonderes hydrographisches abflussloses Gebiet betrachtet. Es fragt sich nun, ob dies stets der Fall gewesen ist. Humboldt herichtet, dass früher der Rio Pao am Westuffer des Sees, ein Fluss, der aus den Quellflüssen Guataparo, Tocuyito und Chirgua entsteht, in den See gegangen und erst seid Ende des 17. Jahrhunderts durch einen Gutsbesitzer nach den Llanos abgeleitet sei, das aber noch 1800 der Caño Camburi zu Zeiten aus dem See herausfloss. Es scheint nun, dass dies sich allmählich vervollkomnet hat. Wenigstens berichtet Dr. Alamo in Caracas in einem Aufsatze Estudios sobre el lago de Valencia der Zeitung El Opinion Nacional vom 3 Januar 1884, dass 1817 einige von den Spaniern verfolgte Flüchtlinge auf die Weise der Verfolgung entgingen, dass sie sich am See von Valencia einschifften und durch den Caño Camburi, den Rio Bucarito, den Rio Paito, Rio Pao, Portuguesa, Apuré zum Orinoco hinabfuhren; dass ferner der General Arriento 1853 bei der Befahrung des Sees vermittelst eines Dampfers bei Gelegen-



Fro. 1. Region about Lake Valencia. The broken line indicates the ancient maximum size of the lake. After Sievers Cordillere von Merida.

heit der Einnahme von Holz constatiert habe, dass der Caño Camburi aus dem See herausflösse. Damit hätten wir also das Resultat, dass der See von Valencia und seine sämmtlichen Zuflüsse zum Stromgebiete des Orinoco gehört haben, und es unterliegt keinem Zweifel, dass dies noch bis vor Kurzem der Fall gewesen ist. Nach Aussage des Hacendado Don Alejandro Llanos auf der Hacienda Siparo (El Progreso) floss der See etwa bis 1873 thatsächlich in den Caño Camburi nach dem Rio Pao ab. Dagegen hat nun 1873 der Hacendado Amarado Munoz infolge der Ueberschwemmungen, die der Rio Paito alljährlich in seinen Feldern anrichtete, denselben abgeleitet, so dass heutzutage der Rio Paito an der sogenannten Loma de la Sabana de San Pablo entspringt, bis zu einem Punkte Las Araguatas fliesst, dort sich theilt auf der südlichen Seite den Namen Rio Paito beibehält, in seinem nördlichen Arm Rio Canes heisst, sich mit diesem Arm bei Eglita wieder vereinigt und nun als Caño Camburi in den See von Valencia mündet. Seit 15 Jahren ist also die Existenz eines Binnenbeckens, das früher in den Orinoco abfloss, durch künstliche Eingriffe wieder hergestellt worden, indess soll zur Regenzeit immer noch ein Zusammenhang mit dem Rio Pao existieren; die früheren Zuflüsse des Rio Paito, der Guataparo und Tocuyito gehen jetzt in den Rio Chirgua und dann erst in den Pao.

The fauna is poor. In all but 31 species were collected: Siluridae 4 species, Loricariidae 5, Callichthyidae 1, Characidae 14, Gymnotidae 1, Atherinidae 1, Poeciliidae 1, Symbranchidae 1, Cichlidae 2.

A list of the species with their general distribution follows:

C. Pimelodella metae Eigenmann.

C. Pimelodella tapatapæ sp. nov.

A. Rhamdia quelen Quoy and Gaimard.

C. Rhamdia guairensis sp. nov.

C. Ancistrus brevifilis sp. nov.

A. V. Plecostomus plecostomus Linnaeus.

C. Cochliodon plecostomoides Eigenmann.

C. Lasiancistrus mystacinus Kner.

C. Chaetostomus nudirostris Lütken.

C. Chaetostomus pearsei sp. nov.

C. Chaetostomus guairensis Steind.

C. Farlowella acus (Kner)

B. Corydoras aeneus Gill.

A. Hoplias malabaricus (Bloch).

B. Curimatus argenteus Gill.

B. Odontostilbe pulcher (Gill).

¹V. Hemigrammus marginatus Ellis.

E. Characidium catenatum Eigenmann.

C. Moenkhausia pittieri sp. nov.

A. V. Astyanax bimaculatus (L).

C. Astyanax metae Eigenmann.

B. Hemibrycon taeniurus (Gill).

C. V. Bryconamericus beta Eigenmann.

C. V. Gephyrocharax valencia sp. nov.

Valencia basin.

Valencia basin.

Valencia and Tuy basins.

Near Caracas.

Tuy basin.

Valencia and Tuy basins.

Valencia basin.

Near Caracas.

Valencia.

Valencia and Tuy basins.

Valencia basin.

Tuy basin.

Valencia basin.

Valencia and Tuy basins.

Valencia and Tuy basins.

Valencia basin.

Valencia basin.

Tuy basin and near Caracas.

Valencia and Tuy basins.

Valencia and Tuy basins.

Valencia and Tuy basins.

Tuy basin.

Tuy basin.

Valencia basin.

¹Southern Brazil, etc.

^{2}V	Creagritus	heni	Eigenmann.	

- D. Roeboides dayii Steindachner.
- A. Gymnotus carapo Linnaeus.
- C. Menidia venezuelae sp. nov.
- B. V. Lebistes reticulatus (Peters).
- A. V. Symbranchus marmoratus Bloch.
- C. V. Crenicichla geayi Pellegrin.
- B. V. Aequidens pulcher (Gill).

Valencia and Tuy basins.

Tuy basin.

Valencia basin.

Valencia basin.

Valencia basin.

Valencia and Tuy basins.

Valencia and Tuy basins.

Valencia basin.

The species fall into a number of distinct groups according to their distribution. Six (marked A) are universally distributed species. Six (B) in addition to the universally distributed species are also found on the Island of Trinidad. The fauna of the Island of Trinidad has lost its isolation by the study of the Valencia and Rio Meta faunas. Sixteen (marked C) are peculiar to Venezuela about Valencia and the upper Rio Meta but all of these belong to widely distributed genera and they probably have a wider distribution than is now known. One species (D) is also found in the Rio Magdalena, and one (E) is found in the low-lands of British Guiana. Two species do not belong to any of these groups. Only ten of the species (marked V) were taken in Lake Valencia itself.

The lowland fauna is represented only by the universally distributed species and by Roeboides, Characidium, and Moenkhausia. The highland fauna consisting of Pygidium and Astroblepus is not represented in the collection.

ENUMERATION OF THE SPECIMENS

Siluridae

Pimelodella metae Eigenmann

"Vagre"

15088, I³. Largest 100 mm. Maracay, Rio Bue, Valencia basin, July 29.

15089, I. Rio Castaño, Valencia basin, July 27.

Pimelodella tapatapae sp. nov.

15094, I. Type 156 mm. Mouth of Rio Tapa Tapa, July 15, 1919.

Head 4.25; depth 5.4; D. 1.6; A. 8 to 8.5; adipose fin 2.8 in the length, its distance from the dorsal very little longer than the eyes; eye 4 in the head, 1.25 in the interorbital; teeth in the premaxillary in a band of uniform width; maxillary barbel reaching beyond the end of the adipose; outer mental barbel very nearly to ventrals; inner mental barbel slightly beyond origin of pectorals.

First dorsal ray (the spine) equal to the head without the opercle; upper caudal lobe narrower than lower, sharp pointed and a little shorter than the lower; anus but little nearer caudal than snout; pectoral spine equal to snout and eye, with over 20 short teeth on its posterior margin.

Along the base of the Cordilleras from Bolivia to Caracas. The numbers refer to the collections of Indiana University.

Dorsal hyaline at base, dusky above the hyaline; a dark stripe from the snout to the caudal, widest and most diffuse on head, narrow and sharp on sides.

Resembling *Pimelodella metae* which has the upper caudal lobe much longer, the barbel shorter.

Rhamdia quelen Quoy and Gaimard

"Vagre"

15090, I. 167 and 198 mm. Rio Castaño, Maracay, July 27.

15092, I. 195 mm. Maracay Rio Bue, July 30.

15093, I. 278 mm. El Concejo, Río Tiquirito, August 2.

Maxillary barbel to origin of adipose in the largest, 15093, I. to the last fifth of the adipose in 15092, a little beyond its origin in 15090.

Distance between dorsal and adipose 4 to 5 in the head; adipose 2.6 to 2.66 in the length.

Pectoral spine equals snout and eye.

Rhamdia guairensis sp. nov.

"Vagre"

Pimelodus humilis Günther, Cat. Fishes, v. 1864, p. 129

Venezuela

15091, I. Type, 132 mm. paratypes 5, 68 to 220 mm. Rio Guaire near Caracas, August 4.

Günther says of his *Pimelodus humilis*, "pectoral spine slightly serrated along both edges". In the specimens before me the pectoral spine is nearly smooth behind and has hooks along the anterior margin, the first one near its tip longer than the spine at its point of attachment. The hooks decreasing in size toward the base. There are other small differences but if it were not for the difference in the pectoral spine I should consider them as belonging to *humilis*.

Head 4 to 4.66; depth 6; D. 1.6; A. 11 to 13; distance between dorsal and adipose 1.33 to 1.66 in the head, ½ to ½ the length of the adipose; maxillary reaching to near tip of the ventral or not quite to its base; outer mental barbels to middle of pectorals; eye 2.5 in snout, 6 in head, 2.33 in interorbital; intermaxillary band of teeth slightly wider at the sides, with incipient backward projecting angle.

First dorsal ray about equal to snout and eye; caudal deeply forked; the lobes of about equal length, the lower a little the wider; anus a little nearer the eye than to the caudal; pectoral spine but little more than half the length of the fin, about equal to the snout in the young, .66 to .75 of the snout in the adult; anterior margin with about 9 hooks, very strong at the tip, gradually fading out to the base.

Dorsal with a narrow hyaline area above its base, beyond this the membranes are dark in their posterior half, light in the anterior, the dark becoming diffuse over the entire membrane toward the tip.

Loricariidae

Plecostomus plecostomus (L)

"Panague"

15082, I. 1, Concejo, Rio Tuy, August 1, 1918.

15083, I. 3, Concejo, Rio Tiquirito, August 2, 1918. The smallest 23 mm.

15085, I. 1, Isla del Buro, July 12, 1918.

27+1 lateral plates, 15085 has the occipital bordered by three larger and three minute plates.

15086, I. 39 mm. Maracay, Rio Bue, July 20, 1918.

Cochliodon plecostomoides Eigenmann (Ms)

"Panaque"

15084. I. 1. Maracay, Rio Bue, July 29, 1918.

Lasiancistrus mystacinus Kner

Recorded from Caracas; no specimens secured.

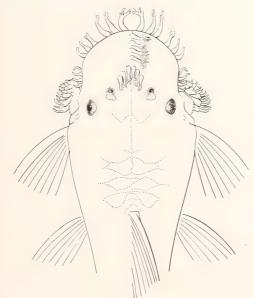


Fig. 2. Top of head of Ancistrus brevifilis E. Type.

Ancistrus brevifilis sp. nov.

"Barbon"

15080, I. Type, 150 mm.; paratype 136 mm. male, paratype 100 mm. female; El Concejo, Rio Tiquirito, August 2, 1918.

Distinguished by short tentacles, bifid or multifid on the snout.

Head 2.8 (2.66 in the male paratype); depth 5.25; D. I,7; A. I,4; plates 23+1; width of head 1.25 (2.4); in its length, its depth equal to half its length; eye 9 (8) in the head; interorbital 2.33 (2.6); mandibular ramus

3 (3.33) in interorbital; interopercle with 12 to 13 spines, the longest .2 the length of the head, naked portion of snout measured in the middle 2.5 to 2.66 in the length of the head; tentacles short, about equal to the length of the eye or shorter, those on the middle with from 2 to 10 very short branches at the tip; 5 plates and one median scute between the dorsal and the adipose, 11+1 between the anal and lower caudal ray; base of dorsal equal to its distance from the middle of the adipose spine; ventrals reaching past middle of anal, pectorals to the middle of the ventrals; depth of caudal peduncle 26 in its distance from the caudal.

Dorsal, caudal, ventrals and pectorals, each with four or five conspicuous, wavy bars; faint darker spots about the size of the eye in front of the dorsal, ventral surface uniform. In the female, the smaller paratype, the number of bands on the fins is smaller and they are less well marked; the naked margin of the snout is very narrow and without tentacles.

Chaetostomus nudirostris Lütken

Steindachner, Flussf. Südam II, 1881, p. 20, pl. v. fig. 2 notes on the type which has D. I, 7. (Valencia.)

No specimens were secured.

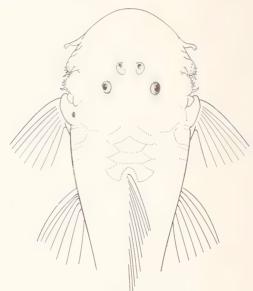


Fig. 3. Top of head of Chætostomus pearsei E. Type.

Chaetostomus pearsei sp. nov.

"Coroncho"

15077, I. Type, 146 mm., paratypes, 3, 65 to 133 mm., Rio Castaño at Maracay, under rocks, July 16, 1918.

15078, I. Paratype 122 mm., Rio Tuy at El Concejo, August 1, 1918.

Head about 3; depth 6.5 to 7.5; D. I,9; A. I,4; 24+1 plates between the dorsal and the fulcrum of the adipose, 11 between the anal and the lower

caudal ray. Width of the head an orbital diameter less than its length, its depth at the eyes 2.5 in its length; interorbital 4 or nearly 4 in the length of the head; mandibular ramus equal to the interorbital; 5 to rarely 7 interopercular spines; naked part of snout extending about one third of the way to the posterior part of the eye.

None of the plates keeled; dorsal reaching the base or middle of the adipose spine; base of dorsal equal to snout and eye; lower caudal ray one or two orbital diameters shorter than the head; ventrals reaching to second third of the anal, pectorals about to middle of ventrals; ventrals rounded or angulated at the fourth ray from the outer.

Dark above with faint light dots, lower surface unspotted, fins dusky, a few faint light dots on the posterior dorsal rays; dorsal and caudal margined with light.

These were taken with:

Chaetostomus guairensis Steindachner

Chaetostomus guairensis St. Flussf. Südam. II, p. 21, 1881, pl. III. fig. 1 and 1a. (Rio Guaire at Caracas.)

15079, I. one, 155 mm. Rio Castaño, at Maracay, July 16, 1918. D. I,S.

Farlowella acus (Kner)

"Aguia"

15081, I. 3 males and 4 females, El Concejo, Rio Tiquirito, August 2, 1918.

Callichthyidae

Corydoras aeneus Gill

15087, I. Maracay, Rio Bue, July 19, 20, and 29.

Erythrinidae

Hoplias malabaricus (Bloch)

"Guahina"

15106, I. Rio Tiquirito, El Concejo, August 1.

15107, I. Rio Tuy, El Concejo, August 1.

15108, I. Isla del Buro, Lake Valencia, July 9 and 10.

15109, I. Maracay, Rio Bue, July 19.

Characidae

Curimatinae

Curimatus argenteus (Gill)

"Cula"

15110, I. El Concejo, Rio Tiquirito, August 1.

15111, I. Maracay, Rio Bue.

Cheirodontinae

Odontostilbe pulcher (Gill)

"Sardina"

15126, I. Maracay, Rio Bue, July 19 and 29.

Nannostomatinae

Characidium catenatum Eigenmann

"Majuca"

15143, I. Rio Guaire, near Caracas, August 4, 1918

15142, I. Concejo, Rio Tuy, August 1, 1918.

Tetragonopterinae

Hemigrammus marginatus Ellis

"Sardina"

15127, I. Maracay, Rio Bue, July 29.

15128, I. Isla del Buro, July 11.

These specimens differ from those in Paraguay and southern Brazil in having not more than one maxillary tooth. The caudal margin or submargin is intensely black, the tip in some specimens light.

Moenkhausia pittieri sp. nov.

"Sardina"

15136, I. Type 58 mm. 27 paratype, 33 to 60 mm. Concejo, Rio Tiquirito, August 1.

15137, I. Paratype, 45 mm. Maracay, Rio Bue, July 28.

Head 4; depth 2.16 to 2.5; D. 11; A. 26 to 29; scales 7-35-6; eye 2.5 equals interorbital.

Deep, compressed, ventral profile regularly arched from chin to end of anal, dorsal profile slightly depressed over the eye; preventral area narrowly rounded, postventral area narrowly compressed; predorsal area narrowly keeled, with a median series of slightly notched scales near the dorsal and lateral scales with their edge bent over the middle further forward.

Occipital process equals one-fourth the distance from its base to the dorsal, bordered by three scales; fontanels rather broad, the frontal fontanel about three-fourths as long as the parietal without its groove; suborbital with a strongly convex margin, the naked area of the cheek increasing in width from the angle of the suborbital forward; maxillary a little less than 3 in the head, mandible very little more than 2; four or five teeth in the outer series of the premaxillary, five in the inner series, three or four in the maxillary; five teeth of nearly equal size (the last sometimes considerably smaller) in each ramus of the mandible, abruptly smaller teeth on its side.

5+8 gill rakers.

Scales regularly imbricate, lateral line but little decurved; anal with a sheath of a few scales along the base of its anterior third or fourth; caudal lobes with but few small scales along the outer part of their basal fourth. Scales with but few divergent striae.

Fins all large; origin of dorsal equidistant from snout and tip of adipose or caudal, the third, fourth, and fifth rays highest, reaching to the adipose or the caudal; adipose fin well developed; caudal lobes 2.75 to 3.25 in the length; anal high, with a distinct lobe in front, the fifth to the seventh ray highest, reaching to the base of the fifth to sixth ray from the last, origin of anal about equidistant from the caudal and the middle

of the eye; ventrals prolonged, reaching in extreme cases to the twelfth anal ray; pectorals about equal to the length of the head.

No caudal or humeral spots, a narrow lateral band; dorsal, ventrals, and anal dusky.

In general appearance this species resembles Fowlerina but lacks a predorsal spine. None of the specimens have hooklets on the anal rays usually found on mature males of this genus.

Vertebrae 13+17.

Alimentary canal containing fragments of insects.

Astyanax bimaculatus (L)

"Sardina palate"

15112, I. Maracay, Rio Bue, July 29, 1918.

15113, I. Mouth of Rio Tapa Tapa, July 15.

15114, I. Rio Castaño, July 16 and 27.

15116, I. Isla del Buro, Lake Valencia, July 11.

15117, I. Rio Bue, July 18.

15118 and 15119, I. Rio Tiquirito, Concejo, August 1.

Astyanax metae Eigenmann

"Sardina ravo de candela"

15120, I. Rio Castaño, July 16 and 27.

15121, I. Rio Bue.

15122, I. Concejo, Rio Tiquirito and Rio Tuy, August 1.

15123, I. Mouth of Rio Tapa Tapa, July 15.

The dark area from anal to caudal spot inconspicuous or absent.

Hemibrycon taeniurus Gill

"Sardina"

15138, I. Concejo, Rio Tuy, August 1.

15139, I. Concejo, Rio Tiquirito, August 1.

Eye equals interorbital or but slightly less; head 4.38 to 4.6; anal with a narrow black line just within the margin and across the lobe at the base of its distal third. Tips of first anal rays milk white; caudal in the male without squamous pouch; five or six teeth in the front row of the premaxillary, the first and last antropse.

Bryconamericus beta Eigenmann, "Sardina"

15140, I. Concejo, Rio Tiquirito, August 1.

Bryconamericus sp. ?

15141, I. one 43 mm. Isla del Buro, July 11.

A. 30; lat. 1. about 36; one maxillary tooth; maxillary little shorter than eye; interorbital slightly larger than eye.

Glandulocaudinae

Gephyrocharax valencia sp. nov.

"Sardina"

15129, I. Paratypes. Isla del Buro, Lake Valencia, July 11.

15130, I. Two paratypes, Maracay, Rio Bue, July 19.

15131, I. Type and 3 paratypes, Maracay, Lake Valencia off dock of Paper Mill.

The genus Gephyrocharax has hitherto been known from five species, G. melanocheir from the Magdalena between Honda and the coast, G. caucanus, in the Cauca basin between Cartago and Cali, G. chocoensis from the San Juan and the Atrato basins, G. atricaudata from the Panama Canal Zone, and G. intermedius from Panama. The present species reaches a length of about 45 mm.

Head 4.33; depth 3.33 to 3.66; D. 9; A. 30 to 32. Scales 5 to 6.5-40 to 42-5; eye longer than snout, 3 in the head, slightly less than interorbital.

Very similar to *G. chocoensis* and *G. melanocheir*, the pectoral in the male not black tipped, the shoulder without a vertical bar; the frontal fontanel extending to the ethmoid.

Creagrutus beni Eigenmann

"Sardinas"

15124, I. Rio Guaire near Caracas, August 1.

15125, I. El Concejo, Rio Tiquirito, August 1.

15133, I. Maracay, Rio Bue, July 19.

15134, I. Isla del Buro, July 11.

15133 and 15134 are small specimens, mostly between 30 and 40 mm. These have a dark wedge entering the middle of the dorsal from in front. This spot is much less conspicuous and may be absent in the adult. Some of the smaller have a conspicuous humeral spot and a small caudal spot.

Characinae

Roeboides dayii Steindachner

"Sardina"

15132, I. El Concejo, Rio Tiquirito, August 1, 1918.

D. 49; scales 61 and 62. Shoulder spot small and inconspicuous.

It is possible that this will form another of the "statistical" species of the genus Roeboides. There are several such west of the Eastern Andes of Colombia. There being but one specimen available for examination, the determination of its closer affinities may be left in abeyance.

Gymnotidae

Gymnotus carapo Linnaeus

"(L?) amprea"

15095, I. Maracay, Rio Bue, July 20.

Atherinidae

Menidia venezuelae sp. nov.

75144, I., 15, largest 61 mm. Rio Tapa Tapa, July 15, 1918.

Head 3.8 to 4.2; depth 5.66 to 6.33; D. IV or V, 8 to 10; A. 20 to 22; scales 40 to 45; eye about equal to the snout, 3-3.2 in the head, interorbital 4; snout freely protractile.

Upper profile straight to the tip of the premaxillary, mandible strongly inclined upward, gape short, reaching about halfway to the eye; teeth in two to four feeble series, no canines; about 17 rakers on the lower arch; depth of caudal peduncle 2 in its length.

Scales entire; dorsal and anal naked.

Origin of spinous dorsal above a point between the anus and anal, a little nearer tip of snout than tip of caudal lobe; origin of second dorsal a little behind the middle of the anal, the base of its last ray over the anal; caudal equal to the length of the head, pectorals equal to the length of the head without the opercle; origin of ventrals a little nearer snout than base of last anal ray.

A lateral band on the fifth and part of the sixth scale below the dorsal, otherwise translucent?

Poeciliidae

Lebistes reticulatus (Peters)

- 15145, I. Sewer ditch, Maracay, July 14.
- 15146, I. Rio Castaño, July 27.
- 15147, I. Isla del Buro, July 11.
- 15148, I. Maracay, Lake Valencia, July 25.
- 15149, I. Maracay, Rio Bue, July 19.

Symbranchidae

Symbranchus marmoratus Bloch

"Anguilla"

- 15096, I. Isla del Buro, July 9 and 12. Rocks on shore of Lake Valencia. Mud at depth of 15 m. July 18; one from stomach of Guabina, July 22.
- 15097, I. Rio Guaire near Caracas, August 4.
- 15098, I. Little stream by Agricultural Station, Caracas. Dr. Pittier.
- 15099, I. 35 mm. Mud behind rushes. Maracay, July 25.

Cichlidae

Crenicichla geayi Pellegrin

"Mataguaro"

- 15100, I. Concejo, Rio Tiquirito, August 1 and 2.
- 15101, I. Isla del Buro, July 9 and 11.
- 15103, I. Maracay, Rio Bue, July 29.
- 15102, I. Rio Castaño, July 27.

Aequidens pulcher (Gill)

"Chusco"

- 15104, I. Isla del Buro, Lake Valencia, July 10.
- 15105, I. Maracay, Rio Bue, July 19 and 29.

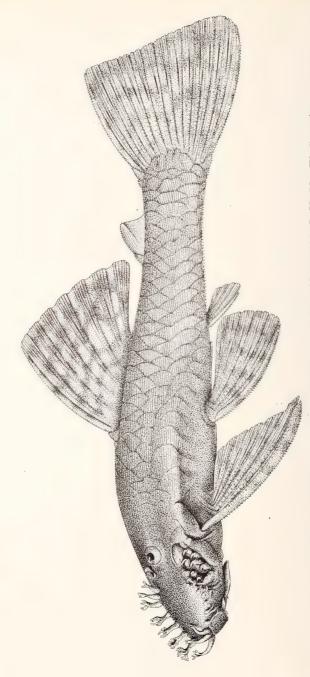


PLATE I. Ancistrus brevifilis Eigenmann. Type No. 15080, I. U. M. El Concejo.

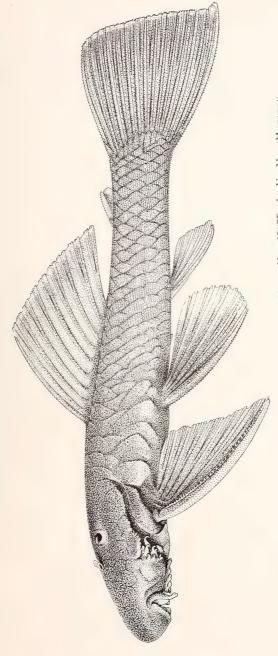
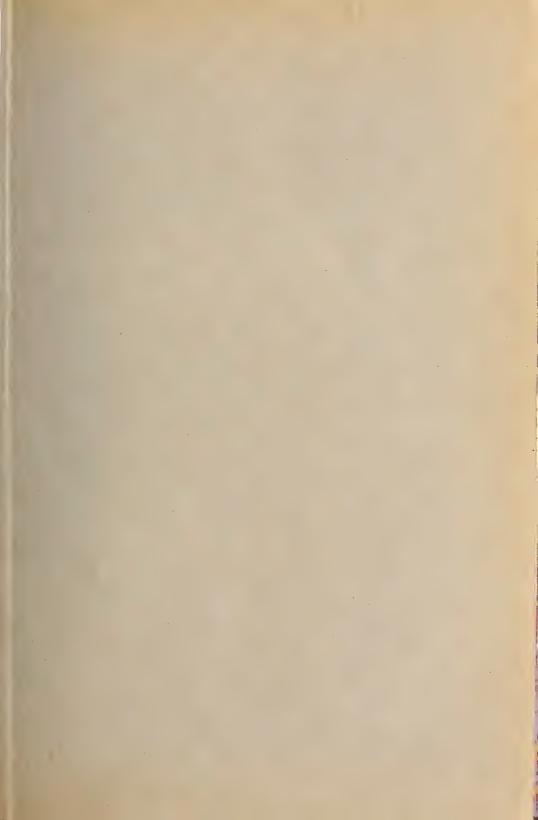
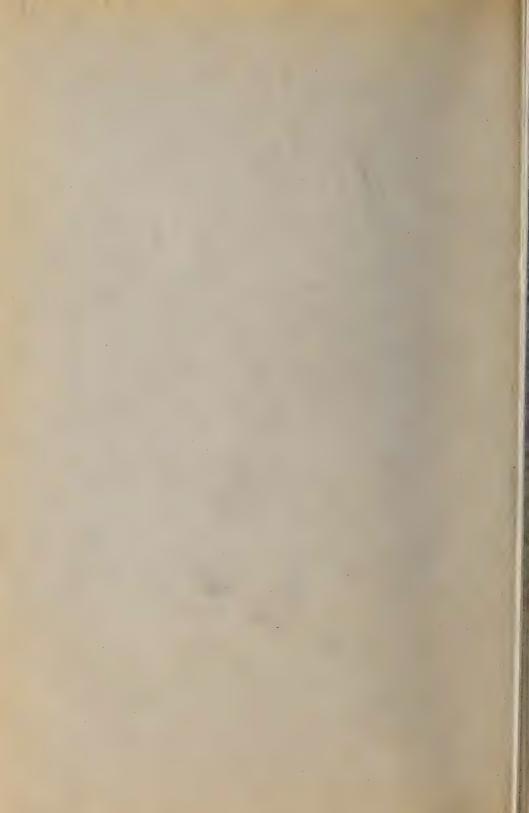


PLATE II. Chætostomus pearsei Eigenmann. Type No. 15077, I. U. M. Maracay.



PLATE III. Moenkhausia Pittieri Bigenmann, Type, No. 15136, I. U. M. Rio Tiquirito.





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INDIANA UNIVERSITY STUDIES





Study No. 45

SOUTH AMERICA WEST OF THE MARACAIBO, ORINO-CO, AMAZON, AND TITICACA BASINS, AND THE HORIZONTAL DISTRIBUTION OF ITS FRESH-WATER FISHES. By Carl H. Eigenmann, Dean of the Graduate School, and Head of the Department of Zoölogy in Indiana University. The Indiana University Studies are intended to furnish a means for publishing some of the contributions to knowledge made by instructors and advanced students of the University. The Studies are continuously numbered; each number is paged independently.

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Prefatory Note

The present study is a continuation of *Indiana University Studies* Nos. 16, 18, 19, 20, 23, 24, and 25. It presents a summary of an examination of the fresh-water fishes of South America west of the Andes of Bogota and of the Pacific slope of Ecuador and Peru. Other chapters giving summaries and conclusions are appearing in various scientific journals. A fully illustrated monograph is ready for the printer.

The material on which these studies are based consists of col-

lections made during the following expeditions:

1. A "Reconnaisance of Colombia" during January, February, March, and part of April, 1912, by C. H. Eigenmann. A series of collections was made from Cartagena on the northern coast up the Magdalena to Girardot and up to Bogota, between Bogota, Ibagué, Cartago, Cali, to Buenaventura on the Pacific Ocean, thence up the San Juan and down the Atrato to Rio Sucio and back to Cartagena. These collections were supplemented by others collected by Manuel Gonzales who was a member of the expedition. He collected particularly between Bogota and Honda, Bogota and San Gil, and Bogota and Barrigon, respectively, west, north, and east of Bogota.

2. "The Landon-Fisher Expedition to Colombia" by Arthur

Henn and Charles Wilson.

They collected particularly in the Rio Telembi of the Rio Patia basin. Later Mr. Wilson collected in the upper San Juan, in the Rio Atrato, and the Rio Truando of the Atrato basin during January, February, and March of 1913.

3. "The Landon Ecuadorian Expedition" by Mr. Henn.

Mr. Henn after separating from Mr. Wilson spent the rest of 1913 and part of 1914 in exploring some of the headwaters of the Rio Patia, the lower courses of the Rio San Juan, in Colombia and the Chone, Portoviejo and Guayas basins in Ecuador, and in the highland of Ecuador.

4. "The Irwin Expedition to Peru, Bolivia, and Chili" by C. H. and Adele Eigenmann and Wm. Ray Allen. Only a small part of the material of this expedition pertains to these studies. Collections were made in 1918 and 1919 in the Chira, Piura, Jequetepeque, Rimac, and Chili rivers in Peru.

- 5. "The University of Michigan Expedition to Santa Marta." The collections of this expedition were lent me for study by Dr. A. G. Ruthven of the Museum of the University of Michigan.
- 6. Various collections were received from Colombia, made under the inspiration of Hermano Apolinar Maria, Director of the Museum of the Instituto de la Salle at Bogota.
- 7. The extensive collections made and reported upon by the late Seth E. Meek and S. F. Hildebrand for the Smithsonian Institution and the Field Museum.

The types and first series of the first two expeditions and the second series of the Landon Ecuadorian Expedition are in the Carnegie Museum, the types and first series of the third, fourth, and sixth expeditions and the second series of the first two expeditions are in the collections of Indiana University.

Special acknowledgments are due to Mr. Hugh McK. Landon, Mr. Carl G. Fisher, and Mr. Will Irwin for providing in large part for the expeditions bearing their names, and to Mr. Arthur Henn, Mr. Charles Wilson, Mr. Arthur Bierhaus, Dr. William Ray Allen, and Miss Adele Eigenmann, volunteer workers during the various expeditions.

Some of the questions concerning the distribution of freshwater fishes in this area are:

- 1. What fishes are found west of the Cordillera of Bogota and on the Pacific slope of Ecuador and Peru?
 - 2. Where did the ancestors of the present fauna come from?
 - 3. Is the transandean fauna a unit?
- 4. How, where, and when did the fishes get into the Magdalena and Guayas rivers?
 - 5. What types of fishes are found in the Chagres river?
 - 6. How and when did the fishes reach the Chagres?
- 7. How did those that succeeded in getting into the Chagres succeed in their migration northward or southward?
- 8. What types of fishes are found in the Pacific slope rivers between Panama and Peru?
- 9. What relation do the fishes of the Atrato and San Juan bear to each other?

Some of these questions were well formulated before I began my work. Others have suggested themselves as the work progressed. All of them receive full consideration in the volume just completed. They are also treated in the series of articles going thru the press of various journals.

Many of the species recognized were new to science and are for the most part figured in the forthcoming volume. It was found that the ancestors of the present fauna came in small part from Central America, in small part from the ocean, in large part it had a common origin with the fauna of the present Orinoco and Amazon basins. The ancient fauna of South America, extending from ocean to ocean, was divided by the formation of the Andes which arose as a screen, dividing the ancient fauna into cis-Andean and trans-Andean sections. Since the Andes have become an effective barrier against the cis-Andean and trans-Andean migrations, the parts of the ancient fauna have undergone an independent evolution resulting in many genera and species peculiar to the various rivers. A study of the migrations and interrelations of the different river faunas shows that the fauna of the Guavas and the region south was separated from the Amazon, the fauna of the Magdalena from the Orinoco, and that the Guayas and Magdalena have had little or no intermigration.² The present fauna of western Peru north of the Rimac is a relict of the Guayas fauna; south of the Rimac, in part at least, of the Chilenean fauna. The Chagres fauna has come in part from the north and in part from the south (the Atrato via the Tuyra and Chepo), chiefly during the lifetime of its present species. The Atrato-San Juan valley has been used as a highway between the Atlantic and Pacific drainage, but to a limited extent. The fishes of the San Juan and Atrato, separated by a very narrow divide, a little over 300 feet above sea level, differ from each other more than the faunas of the Paraguay and Amazon.

These and other questions are considered in detail in the special articles of which the present study forms a part.

¹It is probable that at least the genera peculiar to the west and of wide distribution north and south antedate the formation of the Andes.

²The present Magdalena fishes show a much closer relationship to the fauna east of the Andes than does the fauna of western Ecuador. Many species are still identical on the two sides of the Cordillera of Bogota, making it seem certain that the specific markings of these species are older than the Andes, unless a road around the north remained open after the Andes became an effective barrier.

South America West of the Maracaibo, Orinoco, Amazon, and Titicaca Basins, and the Horizontal Distribution of Its Fresh-Water Fishes

By Carl H. Eigenmann, Dean of the Graduate School, and Head of the Department of Zoölogy in Indiana University

Physical features. The Pacific slope of South America, 4,000 miles long, rarely over 100 miles wide, resembles a veritable shoe-string in shape. Conditions in this area vary from extreme wet to extreme dry, from wet tropical to dry temperate and wet temperate and cold as one goes south from Panama to Cape Horn.

The rainfall in the Canal Zone exceeds 200 inches per annum: in Buenaventura it is said to be between 250 and 400 inches per vear. This condition prevails to the Rio Esmeraldas in Ecuador (Veatch, Quito to Bogota, p. 163). South of the Esmeraldas the country becomes more and more arid. On the coasts of Peru and of Chili south to Copiapo the rainfall is negligble; it does not average one inch per annum. In Peru all of the water for agriculture is derived from the rivers descending from the mountains, and in a portion of Chili, between the Loa and Copiapo, even this source fails. In Serena, central Chili, the annual amount has ranged from about 2 to 8.5 inches per annum between 1869 and 1910; in Santiago between 4 and 31 inches; the latter a great extreme in one of the years between 1873 and 1910. In Concepcion the rainfall has been between 26.6 and 40 inches during the period 1876 to 1910, in Valdivia between 73 and 143 inches in 1872 to 1910, and at Puerto Montt between 71 and 128 inches.

The amount of rainfall also varies very greatly with the altitude at any cross-section. Behind the coast range there are local dry areas even in the wet regions of Colombia. The upper Dagua river runs thru such a rain shadow between Caldas and Cisnero, and the upper Cauca runs in the shadow of the western Cordillera, and is comparatively arid.

Thruout Peru, Ecuador, and Colombia there are two main chains of the Andes, the maritime, or western Cordilleras, extending from near Girardot to Cape Horn, and east of these the older of the two called the White in Peru, Oriental in Ecuador, and Central in Colombia.

Peru. The physical features of western Peru are very simple. The crests of the western Cordilleras form the divide between the Titicaca or Atlantic and the Pacific slope drainage. The crest has an elevation of over 14,000 feet everywhere except inland from Paita. Here a dip in the crest has an elevation of only 6,700 feet.

In Peru the Pacific slope is drained by a large number of rivers rising in the western Andes. After a comparatively short and very swift course they either empty into the ocean, or are lost in the sands near the coast, or are more or less exhausted in irrigation projects. Only one of the rivers has a north and south trend for any considerable distance. This is the Rio Santa in central Peru, which, in its upper course, flows between two chains of the western Cordilleras.

All of the rivers have a very great seasonal fluctuation. The maximum flow in all the rivers occurs in March, the minimum in late summer.

The stretches between successive rivers on the Pacific slope of Peru are, in most cases, bone dry deserts, or masses of mountains, into which the rivers have cut deep gorges. These conditions have mitigated against the ready intermigration of fishes.

The Vitor river, in southern Peru, for instance, rises in an upland meadow (over 14,000 feet), flows thru a region of volcanic ash, and has, in its middle course, a valley (Vitor Valle) about a mile wide, cultivated to vines, figs, small fruits, and grain. Then it falls to a lower level, near the coast, where there is another valley. Looking from the hills about Yura, near Arequipa, toward the ocean, the land is a billowy mass of arid, sand-drifted mountains and plains, with nothing green visible anywhere.

The Rimac has a somewhat different course. The Rimac and its tributaries rise in small glacial lakes with elevations of about 15,000 to 16,000 feet. They are, in part at least, inhabit-

¹Enock (Peru, 1910, p. 11) says:

[&]quot;The traveller who enters the interior of Peru from the Pacific Coast must invariably cross the Andes at an altitude of 14,000 feet or more, for the passes of the main Cordillera all reach this elevation. There is one exception, in the northerly part of the country, towards the frontier of Ecuador, where a low gap exists in the Andes, of some 6,700 feet elevation; but this is the only exception in thousands of miles of continuous mountain chain."

ed by an Orestias. Then there is a descent of a few thousand feet, with very swift water, not suitable for fishes, where we found nothing. Within this belt streams are clear in the morning; in the afternoon the melting of frozen ground rolls down thin mud in which nothing can live.

Between Rio Blanco and Lima, a distance in a straight line of less than 50 miles, the river has a fall of over 9,000 feet. At Chosica it has an annual fluctuation between a minimum of 10 cubic meters per second, in September, and a maximum of 115 cubic meters per second, in March.

The Jequetepeque in northern Peru, with a total length of about 75 miles, has a more gentle slope than the Rimac, having a minimum flow of about 5 cubic meters per second in September and a maximum of 220 in March.

The Piura river, at Piura, is reduced during the dry season to a few stagnant pools in which the fishes become greatly concentrated. They starve, but some of them succeed in living thru the dry season.

In southern Peru the interandean region is occupied by Lake Titicaca. In northern Peru it is drained by longitudinal rivers which, in the north, turn eastward and empty into the Atlantic. As stated above, thru the whole of Peru, and northward to the Tumbez, the divide between the Pacific and eastern drainage follows the crest of the western Cordilleras.

Ecuador. In Ecuador the crests of the two main chains of the Cordilleras are but a few miles apart and are joined by cross ridges, in part old lava fields, which divide the area between them into a series of highland parks, 6,000 to 10,000 feet high. Some of the parks drain into the Pacific, others into the Atlantic. The continental divide thus lies along the crest of the eastern chain from Popayan in southern Colombia as far as Cotopaxi in northern Ecuador. It then shifts westward to the crest of the western Cordilleras, then to the eastern Cordilleras again, then to the western again, to the eastern once more, finally shifting to the western crests, where it remains, thru all of Peru to southern Chili.

It may be questioned whether the northern parks of Ecuador are drained into the Pacific because the heavy rainfall has enabled the Patia and the tributaries of the Esmeraldas to cut back thru the western Cordilleras and thus to annex the interandean streams, ² or whether the present trend of these interandean rivers

²Both north and south of this area the interandean parks drain into the Atlantic.

is due to the late formation of the Cordillera of Bogota which in southern Colombia and northern Ecuador are piled up against the Cordillera Oriental. In the center and south of Ecuador others of the interandean parks are tapped by Pacific slope rivers, the Tumbez, Rompida, Canar, Can Chan, and Chimbo.

The Rio Patia in southern Colombia rises near Popayan, flows between the eastern and western Cordilleras southwestward to about 90 miles north of the Equator, then breaks thru the western Cordilleras and flows northwestward to empty into the Pacific near Tumaco. A large southern tributary, the Guaitara, rises between the two Cordilleras, 45 miles north of the Equator, and flows between them to join the Patia, where it bends from a southwest to a northwest flow.

The Rio Mira, with a length of about 100 miles, flows northwest, emptying into the Pacific at the northern border of Ecuador.

The Esmeraldas, with a general trend nearly parallel to that of the Mira, drains the parks about Quito and empties into the Pacific approximately 60 miles southwest of the mouth of the Mira, at 1° north.

The rivers emptying directly into the Pacific between the Esmeraldas and the Guayas are all small, the largest of them, the Rio de Chone and the Rio de Portoviejo, are less than 40 miles long, measuring from source to mouth. South of Portoviejo the country is dry and the rivers are shorter still. In the area between Cuenca and the coast, the Atlantic slope streams, tributaries of the Amazon, rise within about 35 miles of the Pacific coast.

Wolf and Sievers make out that between Esmeraldas and Guayaquil, coastal Cordilleras reach a height in places of 2,300 feet. In the north, about Esmeraldas and Manabi, they are of late tertiary and quarternary. Southward about Portoviejo they consist of older formations. The youngest land of Ecuador lies between the coast Cordilleras and the western Cordilleras. Even as late as quarternary time the Guayas basin was a gulf reaching from Machala to the base of the Cordilleras. This gulf has been largely filled by debris to form the present Guayas basin. The chalk mountains of the coastal Cordilleras reach a height of about 600 to 1,000 feet. The quarternary rolling land has an elevation of 60 to 250 feet. Between the coastal Cordilleras and the western Cordilleras there are a number of characteristically lowland streams with a north and south trend.

Sievers, from whose Süd und Mittelamerica the above account is taken, p. 459, says:

"Infolge der Flachheit des quartären Landes ist es für flache Fahrzeuge möglich, vom oberen Daule in einen der zuflüsse des Esmeraldas, Quininde, zu gelangen. Der Esmeraldas wird aus dem Rio Toachi, dem Rio Blanco und dem Guaillabamba gebildet, hat also seine Quellen tief in der Cordillere am Iliniza und Cotopaxi. Alle drei fliessen in oft wechselnden Betten als charakteristische Tieflandsflüsse durch die Ebene, sind aber Querströme, die genötigt werden, in engem, schluchtartigem Tale mit senkrechten Wänden durch die Küstenkette hindurchzubrechen, so dass der wasserreiche gemeinsame Unterlauf für die Schiffahrt unbrauchbar ist."

The southern part of the former gulf is drained thru the Vinces, Caracol, Chimbo, and Barranca Alta into the southward-flowing Guayas, an extension of the Rio Vinces. Paralleling the Vinces, the Daule drains the area west of it to within about 30 miles of the coast.

Colombia. In Colombia conditions are complicated. The western Andes of Ecuador are continued thru the whole of Colombia to Cartagena.

The eastern Andes, as the Cordillera Central, are also continued thru the whole of Colombia to Santa Marta, but are cut in two by a great fault valley occupied by the valley of the lower Cauca and lower Magdalena.

The two chains coalesce near Medellin in central Colombia. South of Popayan the valley between the two old chains of the Cordilleras is drained by the Patia into the Pacific. North of Popayan it is drained by the Rio Cauca, which starts in the high interandean plateau about Popayan, flows to Cartago, where it begins a turbulent course thru the "knot" of the western and central Cordilleras to Caceres, from where it flows more gently to the Magdalena at a point where, in former times, it probably emptied into a bay similar to the present Lake Maracaibo.

The complications in Colombia are due to the formation of two younger chains of Cordilleras. One of these is the Cordillera Oriental of Colombia or the Cordillera de Bogota.

The Cordillera of Bogota and the plains of Bogota have been studied by Hettner ("Die Kordillere von Bogota," Erg "nzhft. No. 104 zu Petermanns Mitteilungen, 1892). He finds that the Cordillera of Bogota begins between latitude 1° and 2° north, as low hills, joined onto the eastern Cordillera of Ecuador. These hills are cut thru by the tributaries of the Amazon flowing from the eastern Cordilleras. They gain in height at 2° and are no longer

crossed by streams. The upper Magdalena has cut into these Cordilleras lengthwise so that it runs between two of its chains north as far as Honda. At Honda the Magdalena cuts thru the westernmost chain of the Cordillera of Bogota and flows into the depression (fault?) between the central Cordillera and the Cordillera of Bogota. Towards the north the Cordillera widens and then divides into several chains separated by plains. The westernmost one of these is the Sierra de Perija, which extends to the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta. The middle chains are replaced on the north by Lake Maracaibo, the eastern largest one becomes the Cordillera of Merida, which ends at the depression of Barquisimeto beyond which are the Caribbean mountains, the coast Cordilleras of Venezuela.

The Cordillera of Bogota, aside from a few quarternary deposits laid down after the formation of the Andes, consists probably entirely of cretaceous sedimentary rocks. The youngest rocks, the Guaduas layers, may be tertiary. A few rocks older than the cretaceous are the half crystalline blue and green slates with quarzite and quarzitic conglomerate seen near Quetame. The southern part of the Cordillera of Bogota are simple erect, or slightly inclined, mountain folds, comparable to the Jura. The westernmost ones consist of the Guaduas layers and are the youngest. During the entire cretaceous, and perhaps part of the tertiary, it was submerged. The formation of the mountains probably began in the tertiary and did not produce notable modification in the quarternary.

The fourth of the Cordilleras of Colombia is the coast Cordillera. This is the youngest of the great mountain chains of Colombia. It has also been studied by Hettner, ³ and I cannot do better than present an abstract of this paper.

The coast Cordillera begins at the bay of Buenaventura and extends thru more than three degrees to the slight depression of the Truando which separates it from the mountains of Darien. It reaches a maximum height of 1,800 m., but ordinarily does not exceed 1,000 m. Near the middle there are really two chains between which the Baudo flows. The western slope is very steep, the distance between the crest and the ocean being, in some places, only a few hundred feet. According to Karsten, the rocks of the coast Cordilleras bear fossil species of shells and corals that still live in the Pacific Ocean at the base of these moun-

³Die Anden des westlichen Columbiens. Petermanns Mittheil, 1893, p. 129.

tains. It would appear that the west Cordillera are late quarternary. There are no crystalline rocks.

The mountains of Darien have a different trend and form the present boundary between Panama and Colombia.

If Hettner is right about the age of the coast Cordilleras, then the streams flowing westward from the western Cordilleras, the present Calima, Cucurrupi, Jujiado, Sipi, Tamana, Condoto, and upper San Juan, as well as the Raspadura, upper Atrato, Certegui, Yurri, and Sucio flowed into the Pacific at no very remote period. Along with the formation of the coastal Cordilleras there was formed the trough between them and the western Cordilleras indicated at present by the Gulf of Uraba on the north, and the Bay of Buenaventura on the south.

The rivers Atrato and San Juan must have been later developments, the Atrato gathering the waters of the Raspadura and the streams north of it flowing from the western Andes and emptying them into the Caribbean, the San Juan gathering the waters of the streams between the upper San Juan and the Rio Calima flowing from the western Cordilleras and emptying them into the Pacific.

It would seem then, that the oldest of the present rivers of western Colombia is the Cauca. The Magdalena, the largest river, developed with the formation of the newer Cordillera of Bogota. The youngest rivers are the San Juan and Atrato, described above. A lowering of Colombia north of Buenaventura, by as much as 200 feet, would convert the valleys of the San Juan and the Atrato into two long bays or a strait and cause the Magdalena, the Cauca, and the Cesar to empty independently into a great bay or lake extending from Santa Marta to a little way above El Banco.

Horizontal Distribution of the Fishes of Eastern Panama, Western Colombia, and the Pacific Slopes of Ecuador and Peru south to Pacasmayo. The following list gives the distribution of all of the fishes in the various rivers in the area outlined above. It answers the first of the problems in geographic distribution: What fishes are found in the area under consideration?

		Pana	ama		Atla	ntic			Pac	ific sl	ope		
		_				ji.	-i		96		=	and .	_
	Chagres basin.	o ode	sin.	in.	sin.	Magdalena basin	San Juan basin	sin.	Patia to Santiago	as to	Guayaquil basin	Paita, Chira, and Piura basins.	0
	ires l	he sle	Chepo basin	Tuyra basin	Atrato basin.	dalen	Juan	Dagua basin.	to S	erald	/aqui	ura b	Pacasmayo.
	Chag	Pacific slope of Canal Zone.	Che	Tuyr	Atra	Mag	San	Dagı	Patiz	Esmeraldas to Portoviejo.	Gua	Pait	Paca
1. Pristis pectinatus L	_			-	_				-				
2. Pristis perrotteti V			_				_				_		
3. Potamotrygon magdalenae (D.)					_	_							
4. Bunocephalus colombianus E					_		?	?	_				
5. Xiliphius magdalenae E						_							
6. Hexanematichthys simonsi (St.)								_	_				
7. Hexanematichthys henni E											_		
8. Hexanematichthys labiatus (B.)											_		
9. Hexanematichthys assimilis (G.)						_							
10. Pseudopimelodus zungaro (H.)			1		-	-							
11. Pseudopimelodus transmontanus (R.)			1				-		_				
12. Microglanis variegatus E and H								i			-		
13. Perugia xanthus E						-							
14. Cetopsorhamdia nasus E. and F						- 1							
15. Cetopsorhamdia boquillae E						-							
16. Rhamdia wagneri (G.)	_	-	-	- 1	-	-	-	-	_				
17. Rhamdia sebae (C. and V.)			1		İ	-		i					
18. Rhamdia cinerascens (G.)			1		I]]			-	- 1	_		
19. Nannorhamdia spurrelli R			1	13	1		-						
20. Nannorhamdia nemachsir E. and F		1	1		-	-	1		-				
21. Pimelodella grisea R				-	-	1	-	- j	-				
22. Pimolodella modesta (G.)			1	1		1	ì		- 1	-			
23. Pimelodella yuncenasis St	1		1		_ 1	-	1	i		-	Ì	-	-
24. Pimelodella chagresi (St.)	-	-	-	-	-	- 1	1	1		1		1	
25. Pimelodella elongata (G.)		1	1	11	- 1	1	1	1		-	-		
26. Pimelodella eutaenia R				1	1	200	-	-	-				
27. Pimelodus grosskopfii						-							
28. Pimelodus clarias (B1.)		Ì		-	-	-	м						
29. Pimelodus clarias puntatus M. and H.				-									
30. Pseudoplatystoma fasciatum (L.)			-			-			The same of the sa	,	-	:	
31. Sorubim lima (B. and Sch.)				1		-		1					
32. Doras crocodile (H.)				1		-							
33. Trachycorystes insignis (St.)						-							
34. Trachycorystes fisheri E				į									
			1										

35. Trac hycorystes amblops M and H. 36. Agenciosus caucanus St. 37. Agenciosus caucanus St. 38. Astroblepus homodon (R.) 39. Astroblepus shamani (E.). 40. Astroblepus retropinnis (R.). 41. Astroblepus retropinnis (R.). 42. Astroblepus retropinnis (R.). 43. Astroblepus retropinnis (R.). 44. Astroblepus cyclopus (H.). 45. Astroblepus santanderensis E. 46. Astroblepus cirratus (R.). 47. Astroblepus frenatus E. 48. Astroblepus frenatus E. 48. Astroblepus grizalvii H	Pacasmayo
36. Ageneiosus caucanus St	
37. Ageneiosus dentatus K	
38. Astroblepus homodon (R.)	
39. Astroblepus guentheri (B.)	
40. Astroblepus chapmani (E.)	
41. Astroblepus retropinnis (R.)	
42. Astroblepus trifasciatus (E.)	
43. Astroblepus cyclopus (H.)	
44. Astroblepus unifasciatus (E.) — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —	
45. Astroblepus santanderensis E	
46. Astroblepus cirratus (R.)	
47. Astroblepus frenatus E	
48. Astroblepus grixalvii H	
49. Astroblepus micrescens E	
50. Astroblepus fissidens (R.)??	
51. Astroblepus chotae (R.)	
52. Astroblepus longifilis (St.)	
53. Astroblepus heterodon (R.)	
54. Astroblepus simonsi (R.)1	
55. Astroblepus roseui E	-
56. Paracetopsis occidentalis (St.)	
57. Hemicetopsis othonops E	
58. Hemicetopsis amphiloxus E	
59. Pygidium laticeps (K.)	
60. Pygidium stellatum E	
61. Pygidium chapmani E	
62. Pygidium taenium (K.)	
63. Pygidium caliense E	
64. Pygidium latidens E	
65. Pygidium stramineum E	
66. Pygidium unicolor R	
67. Pygidiam bogotense E	
68. Pygidium nigromaculatum (B.)	

¹Rio Santa.

		Pan	ama		Atla	ntic			Pac	ific sl	o pe		
	Chagres basin.	Pacific slope of Canal Zone.	Chepo basin.	Tuyra basin.	Atrato basin.	Magdalena basin.	San Juan basin.	Dagua basin.	Patia to Santiago.	Esmeraldas to Portoviejo.	Guayaquil basin.	Paita, Chira, and Piura basins.	Pacasmayo.
 70. Pygidium poeyanum (C.)²												_	_
73. Pygidium banneaui E				_			_						
79. Pygidium retropinne R					!								
84. Plecostomus spinosissimus St	_	_		_	Total Statement Co.	-					- -		
88. Hemiancistrus annectens R					_	_	_		-				
93. Lasiancistrus caucanus E			-	-		-	-	_					
98. Pseudancistrus setosus (B.)						-	?						

²Arequipa. ³Rio Rimac. ⁴In Rio Meta. ⁵Northeastern Panama.

		Pana	ma		Atla	ntic			Pac	ific sl	ope		
	Chagres basin.	Pacific slope of Canal Zone.	Chepo basin.	Tuyra basin.	Atrato basin.	Magdalena basin.	San Juan basin.	Dagua basin.	Patia to Santiago.	Esmeraldas to Portoviejo.	Guayaquil basin.	Paita, Chira, and Piura basins.	Pacasmayo.
100. Leptancistrus canensis (M. and H.)				-									
101. Panaque gibbosus (St.)						-							
102. Cheiridodus hondae (R.)						-	-						
103. Chaetostomus fischeri St	_		_	-	-	-	-				-		
104. Chaetostomus marginatus R							-		-		_		
105. Chaetostomus leucomelas E									-				
106. Chaetostomus thomsoni R						_							
107. Chaetostomus aequinoctialis P				,						?	?—		
108. Chaetostomus lepturus R							-						
109. Ancistrus centrolepis R					-		-						
110. Ancistrus spinosus H			_	-									
111. Ancistrus chagresi E. and E	-	-											
112. Loricaria uracantha K. and S	-	-	_										
113. Loricaria magdalenae					-	-							
114. Loricaria jubata B					-		_		_				
115. Loricaria filamentosa St						-							
116. Loricaria latiura E. and V				-									
117. Loricaria seminuda E. and V						-							
118. Loricaria capetensis M. and H				_									
119. Loricaria gymnogaster E. and V						_							
120. Loricaria fimbriata E. and V				_	-	_							
121. Loricaria variegata St			_	-	_	_	_						
122. Sturisoma panamensis E. and E			_	_	-	-	_	_				1	
123. Sturisoma tamanae (R.)							-						
124. Sturisoma aurea (St.)						-							
125. Sturisoma leightoni (R.)					?		-						
126. Sturisoma citurensis (M. and H.)			_	_									
127. Farlowella gracilis B						_							
128. Curimatus atratoensis E					_								
129. Curimatus lineopunctatus B					_		_	_		1			
130. Curimatus patiae E									_				
131. Curimatus peruanus E												-	
132. Curimatus magdalenae St		_	_	_	_	_							
133. Curimatus boulengeri P							1				-		

			Pan	ama		Atla	antic			Pac	ific sl	ope		
		Chagres basin.	Pacific slope of Canal zone.	Chepo basin.	Tuyra basin.	Atrato basin.	Magdalena basin.	San Juan basin.	Dagua basin.	Patia to Santiago.	Esmeraldas to Portoviejo.	Guayaquil basin.	Paita, Chira, and Piura basins.	Pacasmayo.
134.	Curimatus troscheli (G.)													
135.	Curimatus mivarti St						-							
136.	Parodon suborbitalis C. and V					-	-							
137.	Parodon caliensis B						-							
138.	Apareiodon ecuadoriensis (E. and H.).											-		
139	Apareiodon terminalis (E. and H.)												-	
140.	Apareiodon dariensis (M. and H.)				-									
141.	Saccodon wagneri K. and S											-		
142.	Saccodon craniocephalum Th											-		
143.	Prochilodus longirestris St						-							
144.	Prochilodus humeralis G											-		
145.	Prochilodus magdalenae St					-	-							
146.	Prochilodus steindachneri St						-							
147.	Prochilodus stigmaturus F											-		
148.	Leporinodus sexdentatus E						-							
149.	Abramites eques St						-							
150.	Leporinus striatus K					-	-							
151.	Leporinus ecuadoriensis E. and H											-		
152.	Leporinus muyscorum St					-	-							
153.	Characidium fasciatum R					-	-							
154.	Characidium caucanum E						_							
155.	Characidium phoxocephalum E						-							
156.	Pyrrhulina semifasciata R						-							
157.	Lebiasina bimaculata C. and V											_	-	-
158.	Lebiasina multimaculata B							-						
159.	Piabucina festae B				-									
160.	Piabucina panamensis Gill	-	-	-		-		-						
161.	Piabucina aureoguttatus F											-		
162.	Piabucina astrigata R									_				
163.	Grundulus bogotensis H				-		-							
164.	Phanagoniates macrolepis (M. and H.).				_	-								
165.	Compsura gorgonae (E. and G.)	_	-	-	_									
166.	Odontostilbe hastata E					_	_							
167.	Pseudocheirodon affinis (M. and H.).	_	-	_	-			1						

	-	Pana	ama .	ĺ	Atla	ntic			Pac	ific s!	ope		
	Cagres basin.	Pacific slope of Canal Zone.	Chepo basin.	Tuyra basin.	Atrato basin.	Magdalena basin	San Juan basin.	Dagua basin.	Patia to Santiago.	Esmeraldas to Portoviejo.	Guayaquil basin.	Paita, Chira, and Piura basins.	Pacasmayo.
168. Cheirodon insignis St					-	-							
169. Brycon alburnus (G.)											_		
170. Brycon atricaudatus (K.)									_	?	_	-	-
171. Brycon meeki E. and H							-	_	_				
172. Brycon dentex G										-	_		
173. Brycon rubricauda St						-							
174. Brycon henni E						-	_	-	_				
175. Brycon argenteus M. and H		-	-	-	ri .								
176. Brycon oligolepis R					-		-	-	_				
177. Brycon petrosus M. and H	-												
178 Brycon moorei St						-							
179. Brycon ecuadoriensis E. and H											_		
180. Brycon striatulus (K.)		-	_	_									
181. Brycon chagrensis (K.)	-									1			
182. Othonophanes labiatus (St.)		9				_							
183. Pseudochalceus lineatus K											-		
184. Hyphessobrycon inconstans (E. and O.)	-				-	-							
185. Hyphessobrycon poecilioides E						-							
186. Hyphessobrycon ecuadoriensis E. and H.											-		1
187. Hyphessobrycon panamensis Durbin	-				-	-	-						
188. Hyphessobrycon p. daguae E								-	_				
189. Astyanax festae (B.)									-	-			
190. Astyanax himaculatus borealis E						-							
191. Aystanax orthodus E. and O	1				-				-				
192. Aystanax stilbe (C.)					-								
193. Astyanax magdalenae E. and H						-		١.		2 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2			
194. Astyanax atratoensis E					-	-							
195. Astyanax caucanus (St.)						-							
196. Astyanax filiferus (E.)					6	-							
197. Astyanax microlepis E						-							
198. Astyanax daguae								-					1
199. Astyanax ruberrimus E	-	-	-	-			-	-	-			L.	
200. Astyanax fasciatus (C.)		-	-	-	-	-	-						
201. Astyanax heterurus E. and W					-		And control of the last	-			`		

		Pana	ama		Atla	ntic			Pag	ific sl	оре		
	Chagres basin.	Pacific slope of Canal Zone.	Chepo basin.	Tuyra basin.	Atrato basin.	Magdalena basin.	San Juan basin.	Dagua basin.	Patia to Santiago.	Esmeraldas to Portoviejo.	Guayaquil basin.	Paita, Chira, and Piura basins.	Pacasmavo.
202. Astyanax aurocaudatus E.						-							
203. Genycharax tarpon E						-							
204 Creagrutus beni E						-							
205. Creagrutus brevipinnis E]		-							
206. Creagrutus magdalenae E						-							
207. Creagrutus affinis St				-	-	-	-						
208. Creagrutus notropoides M. and H	-												
209. Creagrutus caucanus E						-							
210. Microgenys minutus E						-							
211. Phenacobrycon henni E										-	-		
212. Argopleura conventus E						-							
213. Argopleura diguensis E						-							
214. Argopleura chocoensis E					_		_						
215. Argopleura magdalenensis E						-							
216. Bryconamericus simus (B.)									_				
217. Eryconamericus emperador E	_	-	_	_									
21 8. Bryconamericus cascajalensis M. and H.		-									1		
219. Bryconamericus ortholepis E					_		-						
220. Bryconamericus scopiferus E							_	_	_				
221. Bryconamericus s. guzitarae E									_				
222. Bryccnamericus caucanus E						_			_	İ			
223. Bryconamericus peruanus (M. and T.).										_	_	_	_
224. Bryconamericus brevirostris (G.)											_		
225. Bryconamericus scleroparius R					1		?			?			
226. Landonia latidens E. and H					1					11	_		
227. Hemibrycon tolimae (E.)						_			_	İ			
228. Hemibrycon colombianus E						_							
229. Hemibrycon boquillae (E.)						_							-
230. Hemibrycon polyodon (G.)										1	_		A STATE OF THE PERSON NAMED IN
231. Hemibrycon dariensis M. and H				_			İ						
232. Hemibrycon dentatus (E.)						_							
233. Hemibrycon decurrens (E.)					1	_							100
234. Nematobrycon palmeri E.							_						
235. Nematobrycon amphiloxus E		-					1						

		Pana	ma		Atla	ntic			Pac	ific sle	pe		
	Chagres basin.	Pacific slope of Canal Zone.	Chepo basin.	Tuyra basin.	Atrato basin.	Magdalena basin.	San Juan basin.	Dagua basin.	Patia to Santiago.	Esmeraldas to Portoviejo,	Guayaquil basin.	Paita, Chira, and Piura basins.	Pacasmayo.
236. Parastremma sadina E	-			_			_				_		
249. Salminus affinis St	_ _			_					_				
257. Roeboides meeki E 258. Roeboides dayi St 259. Gilbertolus alatus (St.). 260. Acestrocephalus anomalus St 261. Ctenolucinus insculptus St 262. Ctenolucinus beani Fowler. 263. Hoplias microlepis (G.). 264. Hoplias malabaricus (B.). 265. Gymnotus carapo L 266. Sternopygus macrurus (Bl. and Sch.). 267. Sternopygus dariensis M. and H				_	_			_			<u>-</u>		

 $^{^6\}mathrm{A}$ species of this genus has recently been taken by Pearse in Lake Valencia, near Caracas, Indiana University Studies No. 44, 1920.

	Chagres basin.	oe of one.				r.				1		-	
	Chagr	Pacific slope of Canal Zone.	Chepo basin.	Tuyra basin.	Atrato basin.	Magdalena basin	San Juan basin	Dagaa basin.	Patia to Santiago	Esmeraldas to Portoviejo.	Guayaquil basin	Paita, Chira, and Piura basins.	Pacasmayo.
8. Eigen mannia virescens (Val.)			-	-	_	_							
9. Hypopomus brevirostris St			_	-	-	-							
0. Hypopomus occidentalis R							-						
1. Sternarchus leptorhynchus E							-	-					
2. Sternarchus rostratus M. and H				-	?	-							
3. Sternarchus mariae E. and F						-							
4. Sternarchus spurrelli R							-						
75. Synbranchus marmeratus Bl						-	-						
6. Anguilla chrypsypa R						-							
77. Sardinella stolifera J. and G							_	_			_		
78. Stolephorus lucidus J. and G								_	?	-	— ?		
79. Stolephorus branchiomelas E								-					
30. Stolephorus poeyi (K. and St.)			_										
31. Anchovia macrolepidota (K. and St.).			_										
32. Tarpon atlanticus (C. V.)						_							
33. Gambusia nicaraguensis G		-											
84. Gambusia episcopi St		_	_										
85. Gambusia cascajalensis M. and H	j	_											
86. Gambusia caliensis E. and H						_							
87. Priapichthys nigroventralis E. and H.					_		_						
88. Priapichthys tridentiger (G.)		_	_										
89. Priapichthys t. cana (M. and H.)				_									
90. Priapichthys dariensis (M. and H.)		_	_	_									
91. Priapichthys panamensis M. and H													
92. Poeciliopsis colombianus (E. and H.).								_					
93. Poeciliopsis isthmensis R									1				
94. Mollienisia sphenops (C. and V.)	1	_				_							
95. Møllienisia caucana (St.),				_	?	_							
96. Rivulus peruanus R.7					1								
97, Rivulus brunneus M, and H 98. Rivulus elegans St													

⁷Perim, Peru.

		Pan	ama		Atla	ntic			Pac	ific SI	ope		
	Chagres basin.	Pacific slope of Canal Zone.	Chepo basin.	Tuyra basin.	Atrato basin.	Magdalena basin.	San Juan basin.	Dagua basin.	Patia to Santiago.	Esmeraldas to Portoviejo.	Guayaquil basin.	Paita, Chira, and Piura basins.	Pacasmayo.
299. Rivulus magdalenae E. and H						-							
300. Rivulus brevis R.8													
301. Pseudopoecilia festae (B.)										-			
302. Pseudopoecilia fria (E. and H.)											_		
303. Diphyacanthus chocoensis H							-						
304. Neoheterandria elegans H					-								
305. Orestias elegans G.9													
306. Orestias sp.? ¹⁰													
307. Tylosurus fluviatilis R					-		-		-	?	-		
308. Mugil curema C. and V										-	-		
309. Mugil cephalus L													-
310. Mugil incilis G	_					-							
311. Mugil liza C. and V						-							
312. Mugil charlottae St					ĺ						-		
313. Mugil brasiliensis St						_							
314. Querimana harengus G													_
315. Agonostomus monticola M. and H	-	-	-										
316. Agonostomus macracanthus R	-					-						2 2 2	
317. Agonostomus nasutus G					?		-						
318. Joturus daguae E								_					
319. Joturus pichardi Poey	_		_	_									
320. Thyrina colombiensis Hubbs							-	-	-				
321. Menidia chagresi M. and H	_												
322 Basilichthys semotilus (Cope)11													
323. Centropomus ¹² grandoculatus, J. and E.								_					
324. Centropomus armatus Gill								-					
325. Centropomus unionensis (B.)											-		
326. Centropomus undecimalis (B1.)					_	-					_		
327. Centropomus ensiferus Poey				_		_							
328. Centropomus pedimacula Poey						_							
commopounds poundature a coj				1		1			1	li	1	1	l

⁸Colombia.

⁹Headwaters of Rimac.

¹⁰Crucero Alto, Southern Peru.

¹¹From the Rio Rimac south, in Peru.

 $^{^{12}\}mathrm{It}$ is quite certain that the records for the species of Centropomus are very incomplete.

			Pan	ama		Atla	antic			Pa	cific S	lope		
		Chagres basin.	Pacific slope of Canal Zone.	Chepo basin.	Tuyra basin.	Atrato basin.	Magdalena basin.	San Juan basin.	Dagua basin.	Patia to Santiago.	Esmeraldas to Portoviejo.	Guayaquil basin.	Paita, Chira, and Piura basins.	Facasmayo.
329.	Centropomus parallelus Poey	-												
330	. Pomadasys bayanus J. and E.			-				-	-	?	?			
331.	Pomadasys macracanthus (G.)								-			-		
332.	. Pomadasys branicki St								-					-
333.	Pomadasys sinuosus E									-				
334.	Pomadasys andrei (S.)											-		
335.	Pomadasys schyri St											-		
336.	Plagioscion surinamensis (B1.)13						-							
	Haemulon plumieri Lacepede						-							
	Micropogon altipinnis (G.)											-		
	Bairdiella armata Gill						-							
	Calamus brachypomus (Lockington)								-					
	Eucinostomus dowi Gill											-		
	Gerres peruvianus C. and V											-	-	
	Gerres lineatus (H.)								-					
	Gerres aureolus J. and G								-	-				
	Gerres rhombeus C. and V						-							
	Gerres plumieri C. and V						-							
	Iridio bimaculata Wilson								-					
	Trichiurus lepturus L						-							
	Spheroides testudineus (L.)						-							
337.	Geophagus steindachneri E. and H			i	1		-							
338.	Geophagus crassilabris St.14	-	-	-	-		-?							
339.	Geophagus pellegrini R	15				-		-						
340.	Aequidens coeruleopunctatus (K. and St.)	15	-	-	_					_				
341.	Aequidens latifrons (St.)			1		-	-	-						
342.	Aequidens sapayensis (R.)									-				
343.	Aequidens biseriatus (R.)					-	-	-						
344.	Aequidens rivulatus (G.)	10									-	-	-	_
345	Neetroplus panamensis M. and H	16		-			11							

¹³The following marine species without numbers have been recorded from the mouths of the respective rivers.

¹⁴Farthest north for the genus.

¹⁵Farthest north for the genus. It is not found in the department of Chiriqui.

¹⁶Farthest south for the genus.

		Pana	ama		Atla	ntic			Pac	ific SI	ope		
	Chagres basin.	Pacific slope of Canal Zone.	Chepo basin.	Tuyra basin.	Atrato basin.	Magdalena basin.	San Juan basin.	Dagua basin.	Patio ot Santiago.	Esmeraldas to Portoviejo.	Guayaquil basin.	Paita, Chira, and Piura basins.	Pacasmayo.
346. Cichlasoma (Theraps) maculicauda R	_		_	17	_	-	_	-			1>		
352. Cichlasoma (A) festae B	_			?		17	?	?	?				
362. Philypnus dormitor (Lacepede)	1	-								?			
370. Sicydium salvini Grant	-	_				-		-					

¹⁷Farthest south for the subgenus.

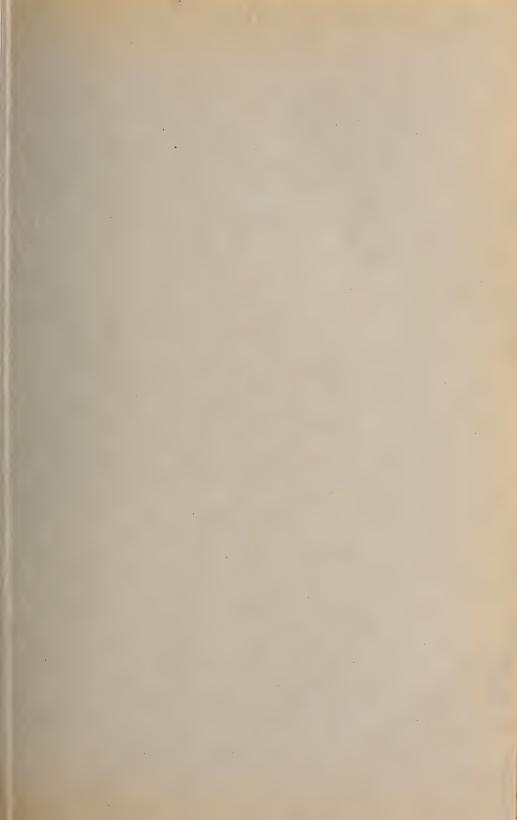
¹⁸Pacific streams of Northern Panama.

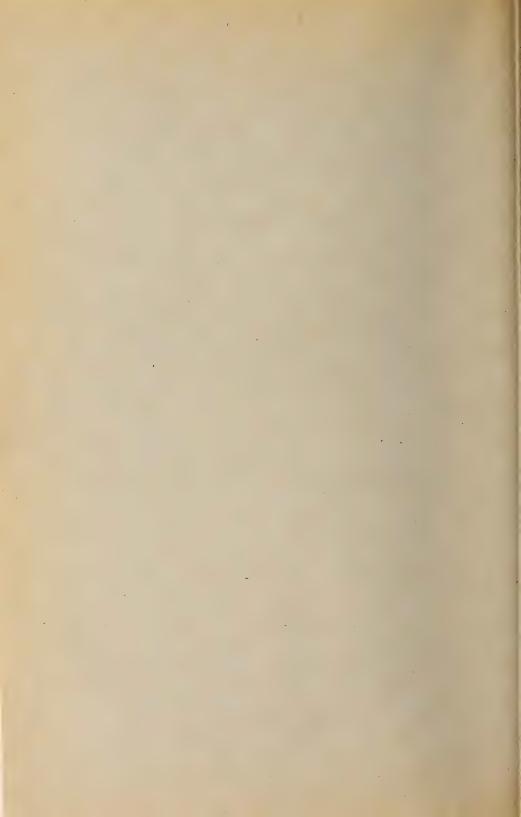
^{19&}quot;Ausschliesslich" nur in den südlichen Flüssen des Department Chiriqui, (West Veragua).

²⁰Costa Rica.

	Panama Atlantic Pacific Slope												
	Chagres basin.	Pacific slope of Canal Zone.	Chepo basin.	Tuyra basin.	Atrato basin.	Magdalena basin.	San Juan basin.	Dagua basin.	Patia to Santiago.	Esmeraldas to Portoviejo.	Guayaquil basin.	Paita, Chira, and Piura basins.	Pacasmayo.
376. Awaous taiasica (Lichtenstein)	-												
377. Awaous transandeanus (G.)		-	-	-			-		-	?	-		
378. Awaous decemlineatus E					-	-							
379. Gobioides peruanus (St.)											-		
380. Thalassophryne quadrizonatus $E.\ldots.$					-								
381. Batrachoides pacifici G											_		
382. Citharichthys gilberti J. and E										-	_	-	
383. Achirus klunzingeri (St.)	-									-	-		
384. Achirus fischeri (St.)			-										
385. Achirus panamensis (St.)						-							
Totals	51	38	43	52	72	162	71	46	49	22	64	10	11
Per cent of the total number (388) of species, about	13	9.5	11	13.4	18	44	18	12	12.6	51	16	2.6	2.8

²¹From the above list two species recorded by Pellegrin from Santo Domingo de los Colorados in the Esmeraldas or Guayas basins have been omitted. They are Gambusia pelegrini E., Ancistrus bufonius C. and V. The total number for Esmeraldas to Portoviejo or for Guayaquil should be increased by two, depending on whether Santo Domingo de los Colorados lies in the one basin or the other. These two species with 71a brings the total number of species and varieties to 388.





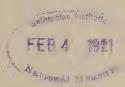




INDIANA UNIVERSITY STUDIES



Study No. 46



THE FISHES OF THE RIVERS DRAINING THE WEST-ERN SLOPE OF THE CORDILLERA OCCIDENTAL OF COLOMBIA, RIOS ATRATO, SAN JUAN, DAGUA, AND PATIA. By CARL H. EIGENMANN, Dean of the Graduate School, and Head of the Department of Zoölogy in Indiana University.

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The present study continues the discussion of the distribution of the freshwater fishes of Colombia begun in Study No. 45.

Contribution from the Zoölogical Laboratory of Indiana University, No. 181.

The Fishes of the Rivers Draining the Western Slope of the Cordillera Occidental of Colombia, Rios Atrato, San Juan, Dagua, and Patia

By CARL H. EIGENMANN

THE rivers mentioned in the title, and many others between them or tributary to them, with one exception, rise in the western Andes of Colombia and flow westward, for a space, at least. The Patia forms the exception. It has cut thru the western Cordillera, rising in and draining the inter-andean parks between Popayan and Tulcan. The Cordillera Occidental is the oldest of the Cordilleras and extends from near Cartagena, on the northern coast of Colombia, to Cape Horn. For the most part the western slope of this Cordillera within Colombia is extremely wet.

A. THE ATRATO AND SAN JUAN

The particular interest in this region centers in the Rios Atrato and San Juan. They flow between the Cordillera Occidental to the east of them, and the coastal Cordilleras to the west of them. They rise on the western slope of the western Cordilleras, flow westward for a space, and then the Atrato turns north, gathering many tributaries to flow into the Caribbean Sea. The San Juan turns south, also gathering many tributaries, and empties into the Pacific. The continental divide, separating their headwaters at Istmina, is little more than 300 feet above sea-level.

A general subsidence of but 300 feet would drown the Atrato valley, extending the Gulf of Uraba to Tambo, just north of Istmina, and would extend the Gulf of Buenaventura to above Istmina. The Atlantic and Pacific would be separated by a ridge less than 5 miles wide and less than 50 feet high. The tributaries of the Atrato and San Juan would be reduced to short mountain torrents.

In a general program for the investigation of the freshwater

fishes of South America! I pointed out the importance of western Colombia to the distribution of the fresh-water fishes. Concerning the Atrato-San Juan valleys I had previously said: "This waterway is one of the strategic points in the geographical distribution of South American fishes and it is more than to be regretted that there is not a single record of a fresh-water fish from either of these rivers!" "

The Atrato river is better known than most of the rivers of South America. This is due to the fact that it was surveyed with the view of using it in part for an Atlantic and Pacific canal. Two elaborate accounts were published by the American government. The first is (Senate Ex. Doc. No. 9. Vol. 7, 2d session, 36th Congr., Reports of the Secretary of War, pp. 1-457, plates. Washington 1861), Lieutenant Michler's report of his survey for an interoceanic ship canal near the Isthmus of Darien. In 1874 appeared "Reports of Explorations and Surveys to ascertain the Practicability of a ship canal between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by the way of the Isthmus of Darien" by Thos. Oliver Selfridge (House Misc. 113, Washington, 1874).

Walter McFarland (Senate Ex. Doc. No. 46, Vol. 2, 2d session, 52 Congr., pp. 1-21, Washington, 1893), gives a short "Report upon an examination of the proposed routes for an interoceanic Canal between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, known as the Nicaragua Route and the Darien or Atrato Route, made in March and April, 1874".4

Detailed maps were published in the first two of these volumes not only of the Atrato itself, from Quibdo to its mouth, but also of some of its western tributaries, the Truando and the Napipi.

The Atrato flows in a wide valley. It is navigable to good-sized steamers to Quibdo, which has an elevation of but 138 feet, and to good-sized canoes to Manigru. Between Manigru and Boca de Raspadura, the navigation even by canoes is more difficult and

¹The Fresh-Water Fishes of Patagonia and an Examination of the Archiplata-Archhelenis Theory. Reports of Princeton University Expedition to Patagonia, III, 1909, particularly pages 352-363 and 370-372.

²Science, N. S. XXII, pp. 18-20, July 7, 1905.

³Exclusive of the letter of Gill, quoted below.

⁴The daily press, during the controversy between England and the United States over Panama Canal tolls, raised the bugaboo that England would dig a canal of her own by way of the Atrato. But all talk of a canal from the Atlantic to the Pacific via the Atrato is buncombe. It would either be too long or require a tunnel. In either case there would not be enough water for the necessary locks. There is not the faintest danger that anyone will ever compete with the present Panama Canal by means of a canal via the Atrato.

only very small dugouts can make the whole distance to Tambo, near the divide. On the Pacific slope dugouts make the trip from Condoto and Istmina, without difficulty, to Puerto Negria. Small steamers ascend to Puerto Negria.

The coastal Cordilleras⁵ west of the Atrato and San Juan are said to be quarternary. If so, the valley of the Atrato-San Juan has but recently been open ocean. The height of land separating the Atrato and San Juan is said to have been pierced by a canal near Raspadura by the Bishop Raspadura. If so, nothing remains of it except possibly that Astyanax fasciatus, abundant on the Atlantic side, is sparingly found near the Pacific side of the reported location of the canal.

To what extent, if any, have the Atrato and San Juan been used as a highway for the intermigration of fresh-water fishes?

The Fishes of the Atrato. Lieutenant Schott, of the Michler expedition noted above, collected in the Rio Truando, a western tributary of the lower Atrato. The following letter of Gill refers to this collection.

The letter (*l.c.* pp. 257-259) gives a general report on all the fishes collected during Michler's expedition. A detailed list was never published. The fishes collected were evidently largely marine, probably from the Gulf of Uraba. The letter, omitting the parts pertaining to the strictly marine fishes, follows:

Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C., January 14, 1861.

- 1)	On m	Sir	٠
· L	cai	DIL	٠

I have made a cursory examination of the collection, and I find that there are some interesting forms. Desirous of obliging you, I will furnish a list of the genera to which the species belong.

Of the Teleocephalous fishes, representatives of nineteen genera are present in the collection. They belong to the families enumerated below.

Of the family of Percoids there are three species, which belong to as many different genera and subfamilies.

There is one specimen of the genus Centropomus of Lacépède, a member of the subfamily of Percinae.

⁵The crest of these Cordilleras runs near the Pacific, being in some places only a few hundred feet from the ocean. The western side is very steep, the eastern slope is more gradual, and is separated from the Atrato by a wide lowland. There is a modification of this arrangement where the Rio Baudo flows between two ranges of the coast Cordilleras.

Of the genus Epinephelus, of Bloch, there is also a species; it represents the subfamily of Serraninae.

Both the above species are well known. The Centropomus is the true Centropomus undecimalis of Cuvier.

Of Lutjanus, the typical genus of a peculiar subfamily, Lutjaninae, there

Of Lutjanus, the typical genus of a peculiar subfamily, Lutjaninae, there is also a species.

The family of Pristipomatoids and subfamily of Pristipomatinae is represented by a single species of the genus Haemulon of Cuvier.

.

The family of Chromoids or Ctenolabroids is represented by four species, which belong to the genera Cichlasoma of Swainson, Geophagus of Heckel, and Heros of Heckel. All of these belong to one family, for which the name of Chrominae is acceptable.

The suborder of Physostomi is represented by the families of Characinoids and Erythrinoids. There are species of the following subfamilies and genera:

Of the family of Characins;

Subfamily of Pacuinae;

Genus Pacu, of Spix;

Subfamily of Leporininae;

Genus Leporinus, of Spix;

Subfamily of Tetragonopterinae;

Genus Astyanax, of Baird and Girard, or Poecilurichthys of Gill.

Subfamily of Xiphostominae;

Genus Ctenolucinus of Gill;

Subfamily of Hydrocyoninae;

Genus Cynopotamus of Valenciennes.

Of the family of Erythrinoids there is one representative.

Subfamily Erythrininae:

Genus Macrodon of Müller and Troschel.

There is also a fine new species of the family of Gymnotoids.

Subfamily Carapinae:

Genus Sternopygus of Müller and Troschel.

Of the subclass of Elasmobranchii and order of Plagiostomes there is also a single species.

Family Trygonoidae;

Subfamily Trygoninae,

Genus Trygon of Adanson.

I have given no specific names to any of the above species, although several are new, as it is uncertain when I will be able to describe them, and it would also be injurious to the progress of science to add to the synonymy by the publication of names of species which may be, before they can be described under those names, made known under other names.

Very truly yours,

THEO. GILL.

ARTHUR SCHOTT, Esq.

A few more of the species collected by Schott were later described by Eigenmann and Ogle (Proc. U.S. Nat. Mus., XXXIII, 1907, pp. 1-36). They are Prochilodus beani=magdalenae, Astyanax orthodus; A. atratoensis; Charax atratoensis.

In 1913 I collected at Boca de Raspadura near the divide between the Atrato and San Juan, at Manigru, Boca de Certegui, Quibdo, and Rio Sucio.

During the Landon-Fisher Expedition of Indiana University Mr. Charles Wilson collected along the same general route and in the Truando, a western tributary of the lower Atrato.

The species in the lowest course of the Atrato and its species of Astroblepus and Pygidium living in the highlands have not been collected. These will in part be identical with Magdalena species. In spite of the deficiencies, 45 per cent of the species of the Atrato are known to occur in the Magdalena. Eight more species (about 10 per cent) have parallels in the Magdalena. Ninety per cent of its genera are also found in the Magdalena. The affinity or origin of these 90 per cent is certainly Magdelenan.

Four more genera, Bunocephalus, Hemiancistrus, Ancistrus, and Piabucina are found east of the Cordillera of Bogota and will probably be found in the Magdalena.

The genera not represented in the Magdalena are:

- 1. Pristis, a marine genus.
- Lebiasina, otherwise found only on the Pacific slope.
 (Probably immigrants from the San Juan and the south.)
- 3. Phanagoniates, autochthonus or from the Tuyra.
- 4. Nematobrycon, confined to the Atrato and the San Juan.
- 5. Parastremma, Atrato, San Juan, and Patia.
- 6. Pterobrycon, autochthonus.
- 7. Microbrycon, probably the female of the preceding.
- 8. Neoheterandria, Atrato.
- 9. Thalassophryne, marine.

It appears that either the Atrato and Magdalena received the ancestors of their fishes from the same source or the one derived its fauna from the other.

The degree of affinity of the Atrato fauna to that of the Magdalena is about the same as that of the Paraguay to that of the Amazon. As far as known the per cent of Atrato species found in the Magdalena is really less, but the extreme lowland fauna and the extreme highland fauna of the Atrato will most probably bring the per cent of identical species into the neighborhood of 50, if not to a higher per cent.

The Fishes of the San Juan. The knowledge of the fauna of the San Juan is based on collections made by Spurrell and Carpenter, reported upon principally by Regan (Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist. (8) XII, Nov., 1913, pp. 462-473 and XIV, July, 1914, pp. 31-33); on collections made by myself at Puerto Negria, a point half-way to Istmina, and at Istmina; by Wilson at Puerto Negria, Istmina, Condoto; and by Henn, between Puerto Negria and the mouth of the Calima, and in the Calima river to near Buenaventura. While the river has not been exhausted we know all of the main features of the fish fauna of this river.

A Comparison of the Fish Faunas of the Atrato and San Juan. In the Atrato and San Juan there are now known 112 species of fishes. Only 31 or about 28 per cent of these are common to the two rivers.⁶

In the Atrato alone 72 species have been observed, in the San Juan alone 71 species. The 31 species⁶ common to the Atrato and San Juan form about 44 per cent of the entire San Juan fauna. Of the fishes inhabiting the San Juan and other west coast streams 42 species have not been taken in the Atrato.

The species common to the Atrato and San Juan basin belong to one of four groups:

- A. Those common both north and south of the San Juan.
- B. Those common north of the Atrato, finding their furthest south in the San Juan.
- C. Those common south of the San Juan, finding their furthest north in the Atrato.
- D. Those confined to the two rivers.
- A. To the first of these classes belong Rhamdia wagneri, Chaetostomus fischeri, Sturisoma panamensis, Hyphessobrycon panamensis, the latter represented by different varieties in the north and south, Hoplias malabaricus, Sternopygus macrurus. Of these only the first and last are found as far south as the Rio Guayas.
- B. Those common north of the Atrato⁷ which find their furthest south in the San Juan, and which probably migrated south, are Loricaria variegata, Piabucina panamensis, Astyanax fasciatus, Creagrutus affinis, Thoracocharax maculatus, Ctenolucinus beani, Rivulus elegans, Aequidens latifrons, Gymnotus carapo.

⁶A number of species recorded from the San Juan and Magdalena but not hitherto taken in the Atrato might with reason be added to the 31, swelling the total to at least 36.

⁷As stated elsewhere, the territory in the Atrato basin which may be expected to harbor species of Pygidium and Astroblepus has not been examined.

- C. Those finding their furthest north in the Atrato, some of which probably moved from the San Juan to the Atrato, are Hemicetopsis amphiloxus, Loricaria jubata, Curimatus lineopunctatus, Brycon oligolepis, Bryconamericus ortholepis, Parastremma sadiana, Tylosurus fluviatilis. Some of these may have originated in the Atrato and migrated southward.
- D. Those confined to the two are Ancistrus centrolepis, Lebiasina multimaculata, Argopleura chocoensis, Nematobrycon amphiloxus, Gephyrocharax chocoensis, Priapichthys nigroventralis, Geophagus pellegrini, Acquidens biseriatus, Cichlasoma atromaculatum. The second of these probably migrated from the San Juan to the Atrato; most of the rest moved in the opposite direction.

Those which find their furthest north in the Atrato, or their furthest south in the San Juan, and which evidently moved north or south, by no means indicate the limit of the intermigration of species between the two river basins. A glance at the list of species will show about six genera which are represented by distinct varieties or species in the two river basins and all of these migrated from the one to the other in more remote times, or what, in a measure, amounts to the same thing, they derived their now distinct varieties or species from a common center. Note particularly the genus Nannorhamdia, Hemiancistrus, Roeboides.

It is well to bear in mind that these lists are not exhaustive. Many more species will probably be found in one or the other or both of these basins. But while the details will have to be modified, the general conclusion that the Atrato-San Juan valley has been used as a highway in fish dispersal will not be shaken.⁸

Nevertheless, the relation of the San Juan fauna to that of the Atrato is less intimate than that of the Atrato to that of the Magdalena, or that of the Paraguay to that of the Amazon, more intimate than that of the Magdalena to the Orinoco fauna. The continental divide at Istmina has been an effective barrier against the southward migration of a number of genera.

The genera Plecostomus, Prochilodus, and Leporinus swarm in the Magdalena and Atrato. They are also found in Guayas but *not* in the San Juan, Dagua, or anywhere between the Atrato and Guayas basins.

Those species or genera which find their furthest north in the

⁸Unless we should conclude that the present distribution dates back to the period before the Atrato-San Juan valleys, when the tributaries of the Atrato and San Juan emptied into the ocean.

San Juan, or their furthest south in the Atrato, very probably arose in the San Juan or south in the one case, or in the Atrato and north (which in this case includes the Magdalena), in the other.

Attention should be drawn to a few instances of especial interest.

Astyanax fasciatus is overabundant in the Atrato. A few specimens were taken in the San Juan basin near the Atrato basin, and it is quite possible that they have but very recently gone over to the San Juan. (See above, p. 4, lines 9 to 12.)

Of greatest interest is the distribution of *Hoplias malabaricus*, and incidentally, of *H. microlepis*. The former is universally distributed from the Atrato to Buenos Aires. It got from the Atrato into the Tuyra, and into the San Juan and even into the Patia. But both to the north of the Tuyra, in the Mamoni and Chagres, and to the south of the Patia it is replaced by *Hoplias microlepis*, a closely allied species. Has *H. microlepis* evolved independently in the Chagres and the Guayas or has it been crowded out between the two rivers by *H. malabaricus*?

Of the species found both east and west of the Andes of Bogota, only Astyanax fasciatus, Gymnotus carapo, Sternopygus macrurus, and Hoplias malabaricus are found in the San Juan.

List of the Fishes in the Atrato and San Juan Rivers on Opposite Sides of the Low Continental Divide

	Atrato	Com T
Pristidæ		
Pristis pectinatus.		
Pristis percentatus	_	
Pomatrygonidæ	-	
Potamotrygon magdalenae		
Bunocephalidæ	-	
Bunocephalus colombianus		?
Siluridæ		
Pseudopimelodus zungaro		
Pseudopimelodus transmontanus.		
Rhamdia wagneri		_
Nannorhamdia spurrelli		
Nannorhamdia nemacheir		
Pimelodella grisea.		
Pimelodella chagresi.	_	
Pimelodella eutænia	-	
Pimelodus clarias		
Trachycorystes fisheri	_	
Ageneiosus caucanus.		
Cetopsidæ		
Hemicetopsis amphiloxus		_
Astroblepidæ		
Astroblepus cirratus		
Astroblepus longifilis	?	6
Pygidiidæ	-	
Pygidium ¹⁰ latidens		_
Pygidium unicolor		_
Pygidium spilosoma		-
Pygidium regani		_
Loricariidæ		
Hemiancistrus holostictus		_
Hemiancistrus wilsoni		
Lasiancistrus mayoloi		
Pseudancistrus pediculatus		_
Pseudancistrus setosus		?
Cheiridodus hondæ ¹¹	?	_
Chætostomus fischceri		-
Chætostomus marginatus		-
Chætostomus lepturus		_
Ancistrus centrolepis	,,,,,,,,,	
	_	

 $^{^{\}rm o}{\rm This}$ species is found south of the San Juan and probably occurs in the San Juan altho it has not been found in it.

¹⁰The parts of the Atrato and Tuyra where the members of this genus abound have been but sparingly examined.

[&]quot;This species being found both in the Magdalena and San Juan probably occurs also in the Atrato between the two.

		3.10
	0	i ii
	s t	J. J.
	Atrato	San Juan
	A	00
Loricaria fimbriata		
Loricaria magdalenæ	—	
Loricaria jubata		
Sturisoma panamensis		
Sturisoma tamanæ		
Sturisoma leightoni ¹¹	?	-
Characidæ		
Curimatus lineopunctatus		
Curimatus atratoensis		
Curimatus magdalenæ		
Parodon suborbitalis	_	
Prochilodus magdalenæ		
Leporinus striatus		
Leporinus muyscorum		
Characidium fasciatum. Lebiasina multimaculata.	-	
Piabucina panamensis.		
Phanagoniatus macrolepis.		
Odontostilbe hastatus.		
Cheirodon insignis		
Brycon meeki.		
Brycon henni.	ĺ	
Brycon oligolepis.		
Hyphessobrycon inconstans		
Hyphessobrycon panamensis		
Astyanax orthodus		
Astyanax stilbe	_	
Astyanax atratœnsis		
Astyanax ruberrimus		
Astyanax fasciatus		—
Astyanax heterurus		
Creagrutus affinis		_
Argopleura chocoensis	_	
Bryconamericus ortholepis		-
Bryconamericus scopiferus		
Nematobrycon palmeri		_
Nematobrycon amphiloxus		
Parastremma sadina.		
Pterobrycon landoni.		
Microbrycon minutus Gephyrocharax chocoensis		
Thoracocharax maculatus		
Charax atratoensis.		
Reboides hildebrandi.		
Rœboides meeki		
Gilbertolus alatus		
Ctenolucinus beani		_
Hoplias malabaricus.		

	Atrato	
Symnotidæ		
Gymnotus carapo	_	-
Sternopygus macrurus		-
Hypopomus brevirostris		
Hypopomus occidentalis		-
Eigenmannia virescens	_	
Sternarchus rostratus ¹²	?	
Sternarchus leptorhynchus		-
Sternarchus spurrelli		-
tolephoridæ		
Sardinella stolifera		-
ymbranchidæ Symbranchus marmoratus ¹³	?	
	1	-
Cecilide Drienichthys nigroyentrolic		
Priapichthys nigroventralis		_
Rivulus elegans. Mollienesia caucana ¹⁴ .	?	-
Diphyacanthus chocoensis.	•	
Neoheterandria elegans.		
therinidæ		
Thyrina colombiensis		_
Ingilide		
Agonostomus nasutus	?	
socide		
Tylosurus fluviatilis		
Jaemulidæ		
Pomadasys bayanus		-
entropomidæ		
Centropomus undecimalis		
fiehlidæ		
Geophagus pellegrini		-
Aequidens latifrons	-	
Aequidens biseriatus	-	-
Cichlasoma atromaculatum		_
Cichlasoma ornatum gephyrum		_
Ciehlasoma kraussii		
obiidæ		
Eleotris picta		_
Hemieleotris latifasciatus.		
Philypnus maculatus		_
Hemieleotris levis.		
Sicydium condotense		_
Awaous transandeanus		_
Awaous decemlineatus.		
Satrachoididæ		
Thalassophryne quadrizonatus		

¹²Found in the Tuyra west and the Magdalena east of the Atrato.

¹³Found west, east, and south of the Atrato.
¹⁴Found in Central America to the north of the Atrato.

B. THE ORIGIN OF THE FISH FAUNA OF THE DAGUA AND THE PATIA

The Rio Dagua empties into the Pacific immediately south of the mouth of the San Juan, at Buenaventura. The Dagua rises near Cali, on the Pacific slope of the western Cordilleras, flows northward between two chains of the western Cordilleras to Caldas. North of Caldas it passes thru a desert rain shadow cast by a western chain of the western Cordilleras, then breaks thru the western chain in a narrow gorge flowing westward in its lower course to the Pacific. The height of land between its upper reaches and the Cauca basin is little over 6,000 feet at its lowest place. Collections were made at Caldas, 3,722 feet, Cisnero at the western end of the gorge, 1,046 feet, Cordova, 120 feet, and at Buenaventura (sea-level). The distance between Caldas and Buenaventura is 49 miles: Cisnero and Buenaventura, 33 miles; Cordova and Buenaventura, 12 miles. Emptying so near the mouth of the San Juan, it may be fair to assume that all species common to the San Juan and the Patia occur also in the Dagua. A number of rivers between the Dagua and the Patia rise on the slopes of the western Cordilleras and flow into the Pacific.

The Patia is distinguished by rising with the Cauca in the elevated plain of Popayan, between the eastern and western Andes. The divide that separates the Cauca flowing north and the Patia flowing south is imperceptible. The Patia has cut a deep gorge in the western Cordilleras. Its lower, western course flows in the wet territory. It seems quite probable that the Patia cutting back from the coast has tapped upper tributaries of the Cauca. If so, it happened late in the life of the stream, for, aside from high mountain species, it captured no fishes from the fauna of the Cauca. The highest mountain species in the Cauca and the Patia lend color to the interchange of fishes between these rivers.

Collections were made by Mr. Arthur Henn in the Patia basin in the highland near Tuquerres and Sandona, at the mouth of the Guaitara at about 1,500 feet, between the mouths of the Telembi and the Magui, and by Messrs. Henn and Charles Wilson in the Telembi, a large southern tributary of the Patia.

The fishes of the Patia and the Dagua may have been derived from the San Juan on the north, the Guayas basin on the south, or from the Cauca, east of the western Cordilleras. A comparison of the faunas of the Upper Cauca, the Dagua, and the Patia rivers, to determine to what extent the Cauca contributed to the Pacific slope Dagua and Patia and these to each other, shows that the Cauca's contribution over the Cordillera Occidental is all but nil.

There is but one species common to the three rivers, *Brycon henni*, which is not also found in the Atrato.

One mountain form, *Pygidium chapmani*, is common to the Upper Cauca and the upper course of the Dagua. Four high mountain species, *Astroblepus grixalvii*, *A. chotae*, *Bryconamericus caucanus*, and *Hemibrycon tolimae*, are common to the Cauca and the Patia. (See p. 13, lines 27 to 31.)

The fauna of the Patia consists of several Ecological groups.

- I. High Andean forms: Pygidium taenium, Astroblepus grixalvii and chotae, Bryconamericus caucanus, Hemibrycon tolimae. All but the first of these are also found in the Cauca, and all but the last two are also found south of the Upper Patia.
- II. Lowland species of remote marine origin: *Tylosurus fluviatilis*, *Thyrina colombiensis*, Pomadasys and the members of the Gobiidae. All of these, except possibly *Thyrina colombiensis*, are found both north and south of the Patia.
- III. Twenty-five strictly fresh-water fishes living somewhere between brackish water and $3{,}000$ feet. Of these:
- a. One has a wide distribution both north and south of the Patia: Sternopygus macrurus. It may have come from the south or the north.
- b. Other species and varieties: $Bryconamericus\ guaitarae$, $Curimatus\ lineopunctatus\ patiae$, and $Chaetostomus\ leucomelas$ are peculiar to the Patia. They are modifications of San Juan-Atrato species.
- c. Hemiancistrus annectens and Cichlasoma ornatum are all but confined to the Patia, being found elsewhere only in northwestern Ecuador.
- d. The remaining species, 68 per cent of the 25 strictly fresh-water species, are found in one or all of the rivers Dagua, San Juan, Atrato to the north. A few of them, *Pseudopimelodus transmontanus*, *Pimelodella grisea*, *Loricaria jubata*, and *Brycon oligolepis*, found in the north extend a few miles south of the Patia into northwestern Ecuador.

Twenty-two species, 62 per cent of the entire Patia fish fauna, are known to occur in the Atrato, the San Juan, or the Dagua.

A certain per cent of the fauna of any river will be found in the rivers to either side of it. The very large per cent of the Patia fishes also found in the Atrato-San Juan, compared with a much smaller per cent found in the nearer Guayas, indicates beyond any peradventure that faunally the Patia belongs to the group of rivers to the north of it. Leaving out of consideration the high mountain forms, the only species that indicates interchange between the Upper Cauca on the one hand and the Dagua or Patia on the other, is *Brycon henni*, a species not found in the Atrato. It is known to reach an elevation of at least 3,700 feet.

The Patia does not contain "boca chicas" (=Prochilodus), "dentones" (=Leporinus) or Plecostomas, all of which are found in the Guayas to the south and in the Atrato to the north.

The fact that the Upper Cauca has contributed so very little to the Dagua, or the latter so little to the Cauca, when the passes to cross have an elevation of but 6,000 feet, does away with the probability that any of the Magdalena fishes have come across the present high Cordilleras separating the Magdalena basin from the Orinoco.

Comparative List of the Fishes in the Rios Dagua, Patia, and the Upper Cauca. The lists are complete for the Rios Dagua, Upper Cauca, and Patia. Only those species of the Atrato, San Juan, and northern Ecuador are given that are also found in one of the rivers first mentioned.

	Rio Atrato	Rio San Juan	Rio Dagua	Rio Patia	NorthernEquado	Upper Cauca
Bunocephalus colombianus	_	?	?	_		
Hemicetopsis amphiloxus	_			_		
Pseudopimelodus transmontanus			1 5	_		
Cetopsorhamdia boquillæ						_
Rhamdia wagneri			?			
Nannorhamdia nemacheir	_			2		
Pimelodella grisea		_	_			
Pimelodella modesta. Pimelodella eutænia.					_	
Pygigium chapmani.						
Pygidium tænium.						_
Pygidium caliense						
Pygidium spilosoma						
Pygidium striatum						2
Hemiancistrus annectens						٠
Lasiancistrus caucanus				*		
Pseudancistrus daguæ						
Chaetostomus fischeri			?	?		
Chætostomus leucomelas						
Loricaria jubatæ			?			
Sturisoma panamensis	-					
Sturisoma leightoni					į	_
Farlowella gracilis						_
Astroblepus chapmani						_
Astroblepus retropinnis						
Astroblepus trifasciatus						
Astroblepus unifasciatus						
Astroblepus cirratus		-				
Astroblepus grixalvii				_		
Astroblepus chotæ						
Astroblepus heterodon	?	9	9	9		
Astroblepus longifilis		-	•		_	
Curimatus lineopunctatus						
Curimatus patiæ						
Prochilodus magdalenæ						
Characidium fasciatum.						
Characidium caucanum						
Characidium phoxocephalum						
Hyphessobrycon pecilioides						
Hyphessobrycon daguæ				_		
v1 v 8						

4 / 9 9	
Astyanax orthodus	
Astyanax microlepis	
Astyanax daguæ	
Astyanax ruberrimus — — —	
Astyanax fasciatus — — — —	_
Astyanax aurocaudatus	_
Creagrutus brevipinnis	
Creagrutus caucanus	_
Microgenys minutus — —	_
Argopleura magdalenensis	
Bryconamericus scopiferus	
Bryconamericus guaitaræ	
Bryconamericus caucanus	
Brycon meeki	
Brycon henni	
Brycon oligolepis	
Hemibrycon tolime	_
Hemibrycon boquillæ	
Hemibrycon dentatus	_
Gephyrocharax caucanus	_
Parastremma sadina — — ? —	
Genycharax tarpon	_
Roeboides caucæ — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —	_
Sternarchus leptorhynchus	
Sternopygus mae urus	
Gambusia caliensis	_
Pœciliopsis colombianus	
Joturus daguæ — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —	
Tylosurus fluviatilis	
Pomadasis several species	
Aequidens sapayensis.	
Cichlasoma ornatum.	
Cichlasoma ornatum gephyrum	
Dormitator latifrons ? - ? -	
Philypnus maculatus.	
Sicydium hildebrandi —	
Awaous transandeanus — — — —	
Totals	4

C. ON VERTICAL DISTRIBUTION, PARTICULARLY IN THE PATIA RIVER

No very precise limits can be set for the vertical distribution of any of the fishes. Within limits otherwise suitable environment seems to affect distribution as much as altitude. Pygidium belongs to the heights but may descend to the sea: Astroblepus belongs to the heights but may also descend to near the sea.

In the south, Orestias and Pygidium reign on the greatest heights, both are found in Lake Titicaca (12,000), and in Lake Langilaio (about 14,000 feet). Lower down in the Urubamba river, into which Langilaio drains, come Ancistrus and a genus allied to Bryconamericus. Elsewhere in Peru, Orestias attains over 15,000 feet. In Ecuador, Astroblepus attains the greatest height, 13,400 feet. Bryconamericus and Pygidium come next. Astroblepus and Pygidium attain their maximum size in the mountains of central and southern Peru.

On the plains of Bogota, at about 9,000 feet, Grundulus, Pygidium, and Eremophilus are found. Pygidium also occurs above Bogota. At Ibagué (4,250 feet) I secured a Rivulus, a Bryconamericus, and saw a Geophagus; an Astroblepus was reported. At Boquilla, 5,700 feet, Astroblepus, Pygidium, Bryconamericus, Hemibrycon, and Astyanax were found.

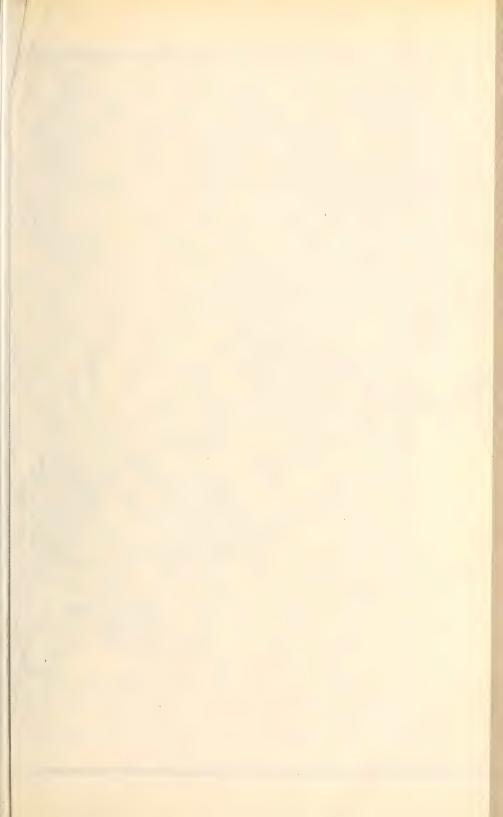
The following table illustrates the vertical distribution in the Patia basin. At 5,000 feet and upwards only Astroblepus, Pygidium, and Bryconamericus occur. At 1,500 feet two out of seven species are peculiar modifications of lowland forms. The rest are lowland species. The fishes at this altitude are largely fishes abundant in the lowlands, but not nearly all the lowland fishes attain this height. While there are species which are predominantly highland forms these may, in favorable places, descend to near the sea. The reverse is also true tho perhaps not to the same extent.

Table of the Vertical Distribution of the Fishes in the Patia Basin

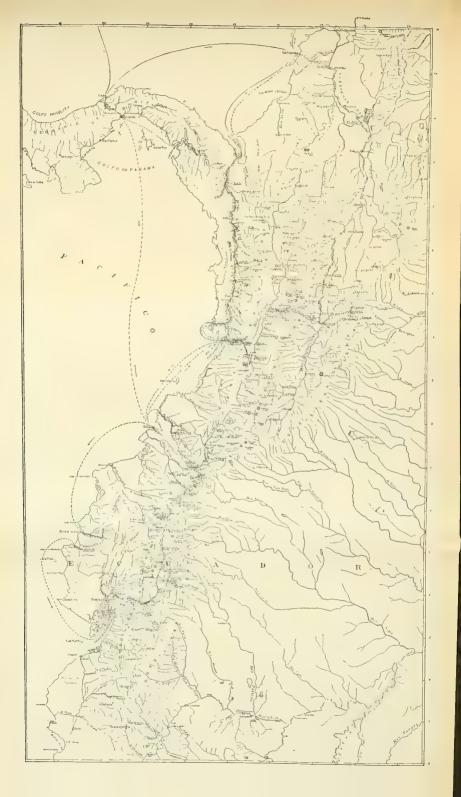
		Telembi below 500	Lower Patia below 500	Guaitara 1,500	Sandona 5,000	Tuquerre§ 10,000
1. 2.	Bunocephalus colombianus	_				
3.	Pseudopimelodus transmontanus					
4.	Rhamdia wagneri					
$\frac{5}{e}$	Nannorhamdia nemacheir	-				
6. 7.	Pimelodella modesta					
	Pygidium tænium					
9.	Hemiancistrus annectens	-				
	Chætostomus leucomelas					
11.	Loricaria jubatæ	_				
	Sturisoma panamense					
	Astroblepus grixalvii					
	Astroblepus chotæ					
15.	Curimatus patiæ					
	Hyphessobrycon daguæ. Astyanax orthodus					
	Astyanax ruberrimus					
	Bryconamericus scopiferus					
	Bryconamericus guaitaræ					
	Bryconamericus caucanus					
	Brycon meeki					
	Brycon henni					
	Brycon oligolepis	-	_	_		
	Hemibrycon tolimæ					
	Parastremma sadina					
28.	Hoplias malabaricus					
29.	Sternopygus macrurus	_				
30.	Thyrina colombiensis					
31.	Pomadasis sinuosus					
32.	Aequidens sapayensis		_			
	Ciehlasoma ornatum	_				
34. 35.	Philypnus maculatus					
55.	Awaous transandeanus					
	Totals	24	17	7	3	1

The large per cent of the total fauna in the Telembi, as compared with the much smaller per cent in the lower Patia, is probably altogether due to the much more thoro exploration of the Telembi.



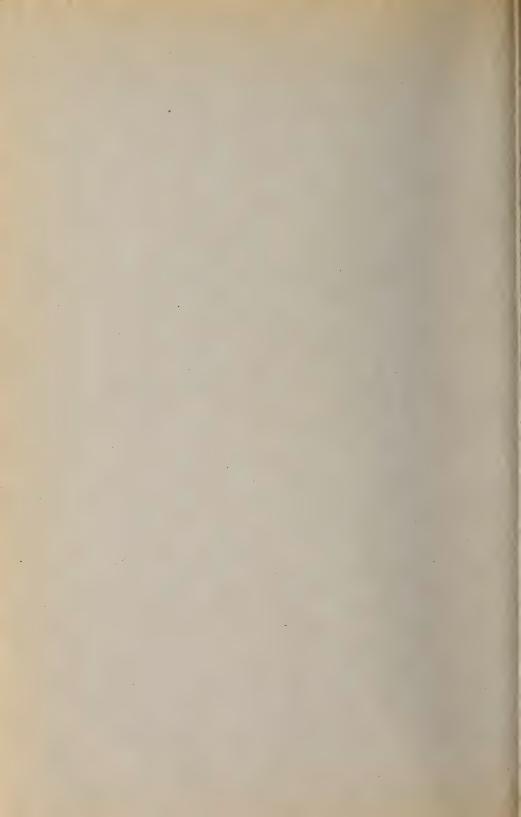












INDIANA UNIVERSITY STUDIES



Study No. 47

- A. THE FRESH-WATER FISHES OF PANAMA EAST OF LONGITUDE 80° W.
- B. THE MAGDALENA BASIN AND THE HORIZONTAL AND VERTICAL DISTRIBUTION OF ITS FISHES.

By CARL H. EIGENMANN

The Indiana University Studies are intended to furnish a means for publishing some of the contributions to knowledge made by instructors and advanced students of the University. The Studies are continuously numbered; each number is paged independently.

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The present study continues the discussion of the distribution of the freshwater fishes of western South America begun in Study No. 45 and continued in Study No. 46. Other articles on the same subject are: "The Fish Fauna of the Cordillera of Bogota" (Journal Washington Academy of Sciences X, pp. 460-468, October 4, 1920); "The Origin and Distribution of the Genera of the Fishes of South America west of the Maracaibo, Orinoco, Amazon, and Titicaca Basins". Proc. Am. Philos. Soc., LX, 1921).

The detailed account of the specimens of this region, fully illustrated, forming Contribution from the Zoölogical Laboratory of Indiana University No. 172, is in the hands of the Carnegie Museum of Pittsburgh which has contracted

to publish it.



The Fresh-Water Fishes of Panama¹ East of Longitude 80° W.

By CARL H. EIGENMANN

The eightieth meridian passes thru the mouth of the Chagres river. East of it lie the entire eastern and southern Panama with the Chagres basin and Panama Canal, the Chepo basin, and the Tuyra basin. The Chagres is the only large river flowing toward the Atlantic; between the Chagres and Colombia the streams flowing toward the Atlantic are small. Nothing is known of the fish contents of those east of the Ric Cascajal at Porto Bello. In the region of the Chagres the continental divide is close to the Pacific ocean. Between the Chagres and Colombia the continental divide lies within a few miles of the Atlantic. The rivers coming from the mountains flowing nearly direct to the sea are short and very probably turbulent.

On the Pacific side there are numerous rivers longer than those on the Caribbean side, and inasmuch as there is considerable tide on the Pacific side, several of the rivers are navigable, the Tuyra being navigable half-way across the continent. The rivers which have been examined for fishes are: first, the smaller rivers near the canal, the Chame, the Chorrera, the Grande, and the Juan Diaz; second, the Bayano or Chepo emptying about 25 miles east of Panama City; and third, the Tuyra emptying about 80 miles southeast of Panama City. Of these the Tuyra is by far the largest, draining with its tributaries a territory 120 miles north and south. Its basin lies just north of the Darien mountains, south of which the continental divide is again switched to near the Pacific ocean.

. The natural interest in the faunas on the two sides of the Isthmus of Panama was greatly magnified when the Panama Canal was projected.

¹Miscellaneous information on Panama was published by the War Department in *Notes on Panama*, by Captain N. C. Hale, Washington, D.C., 1903. The *Report of the Isthmian Canal Commission* 1899–1901, Washington, 1904, contains excellent maps of the entire region.

The fresh-water fishes on the two slopes of the present state of Panama were incidentally considered in various articles, or books dealing largely with other things. Those published before 1864–66 were reviewed in detail in Günther's volume, "An Account of the Fishes of the States of Central America, Based on Collections made by Captain J. M. Dow, F. Godman, Esq., and O. Salvin, Esq." (Trans. Zoöl. Soc. London, VI, pp. 378–494, plates 63–87). While Günther dealt largely with marine fishes, he considered the fishes of the Bayano, Chagres, and the rivers, not specifically named, between 7° and 9° N., and 77° and 83° W., in which collections were made by Wagner.

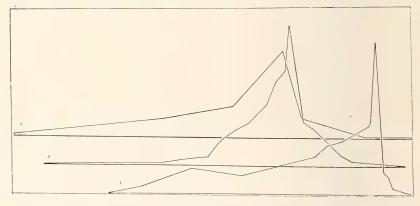


Fig. 1. Sections from tide water on the Pacific side to the Atlant's ends of surveyed ship canals. Adapted from Selfridge, Reports of Explorations and Surveys to ascertain the Practicability of a Ship-Canal between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by Way of the Isthmus of Darien. Washington, 1874, Plate I.

- A. Between tide water in the Rio Lara, a tributary of the Rio Savana and Caledonia Bay.
- B. Between the mouth of the Rio Bayano, a tributary of the Chepo and the Gulf of San Blas.
- C. Between tide (Pinogana) in the Rio Tuyra basin and the Rio Atrato near Rio Sucio via the Rio Cacarica.

Regan (Biologia Centrali Americana, "Pisces", pp. v-xxxii and 1–203, Maps 1 and 2, Plates 1–26) considered all of the fresh-water fishes of the area, incorporating the results of the various studies between Günther's general account and his own excellent volume. Three special studies were made of the fresh-water fishes before the canal united the two slopes. The first two were limited largely to a consideration of the fishes that had been recorded by previous authors before the canal had materially

changed natural conditions. The first one of these is Vaillant's "Contribution a l'Etude Ichthyologique du Chagres" (Bull. Mus. d'Hist. Naturelle. 1897, No. 6, pp. 220–223).

The second by myself (*Science*, N.S. XXII, pp. 18–20, July 7, 1905), besides listing the fishes recorded from the two slopes made a plea for a thorostudy before the canal should be completed and unite the two faunas. The known facts concerning the fishes were very far from complete. I said in part:

I have just finished a consideration of the geographical distribution of the fresh-water fishes of tropical America and Patagonia as applied to the Archhelenis-Archiplata theory of von Ihering. The details will appear in one of the volumes of the Hatcher reports of Princeton University.² The evidence there collected indicates that the Pacific slope fauna of tropical America has been derived from the Atlantic slope fauna. It is quite within the range of possibilities that the Atlantic slope fauna ascended the Chagres and succeeded in crossing the low divide and descended the Pacific rivers. The Chagres route has a rival farther south. In Colombia the Cordilleras form four separate chains. The eastern, east of the Rio Magdalena, the central, between the Magdalena and its tributary, the Cauca, the western, west of the Cauca, and finally, a coast range. Between the western Cordillera and the coast Cordillera is a trough whose highest point is but 300 feet above sea level.

In the west Cordilleras to the east of this trough arise two rivers, both of which flow into the longitudinal valley, where one, the Atrato, flows to the north into the Caribbean, the other, the San Juan to the south, and then through a break in the coast Cordilleras to the west to the Pacific Ocean. The height of land separating the two systems scarcely reaches a height of 100 m. This waterway is one of the strategic points in the geographical distribution of South American fishes and it is more than to be regretted that there is not a single record of a fresh-water fish from either of these rivers!

We are a little more fortunate about our knowledge of the fishes of the two sides of Panama, but are far from an exhaustive knowledge on the subject.

It would certainly be a disgrace not to make an exhaustive study of the fresh-water faunas of the two slopes before there is a chance of the artificial mingling of the two faunas. It ought to be urged upon congress to make provision for the biological survey of the canal zone if the president or the bureau of fisheries does not already possess authority to provide for it. The work should be undertaken at once.

For the biological survey of the Atrato-San Juan route we must depend upon private enterprise, and it is to be hoped that the means for so interesting and profitable work will not be lacking when the volunteers for the work are so numerous and willing.³

² The Fresh-Water Fishes of Patagonia and an Examination of the Archiplata-Archhelenis Theory". Reports of the Princeton University Expeditions to Patagonia, III, 1909, pp. 225–374. Plates XXX-XXXVII. Maps.

³This work was later done by myself and Mr. Charles Wilson. The results have appeared in these *Studies*, No. 46.

As a result of this article and much propaganda, the Smithsonian Institution and the Field Museum undertook a joint survey of the fish fauna of Panama. The survey was not begun until the work on the canal had made many changes in the natural habitat of the fishes, but Meek and Hildebrand's "The fishes of the fresh-waters of Panama" published in Field Museum Natural History Zoölogical Series, X, 1916, pp. 217–374, must remain the last word on the distribution of the fresh-water fishes of the canal region before the canal united the waters of the two slopes. They spent two seasons, January to May, inclusive, 1911, and from January to March, inclusive, 1912, in the field and covered the territory from the eightieth meridian to Colombia. I covered rivers from the boundary of Panama south. I have made free use of Meek and Hildebrand's results in the series of articles of which the present paper forms one.

The problem of the origin of the fauna of Panana resolves itself into the questions of the origin of the Pacific slope fauna, particularly that of the Tuyra, and the question of the origin of the fauna of the Chagres.

We may consider first the origin of the Tuyra fauna and then that of the Chagres.

The Atrato-Tuyra Problem. The Atrato plain east of the Tuyra river is very low and extends close to the divide between the Atrato and Tuyra which, at its lowest point, is but about 400 feet high. On the Pacific side the slope is longer, but also for the most part low. About half the distance between the mouth of the Atrato and the Crest is influenced by the tide.

On the easterly side of the Gulf of Panama [but on the Pacific coast] lies the Gulf of San Miguel, which is an excellent harbor, carrying tide water halfway across the isthmus. The Savana River enters this gulf from the north, and the Tuyra River from the southeast, while the Chucunaque, heading near the Chepo and flowing southeasterly, is a tributary of the Tuyra. Report of the Isthmian Canal Commission, 1899-1901 p. 50.

The lowest point in the divide between the Tuyra and the Atrato given in the Canal Commission's map of this region is 800 feet. The International Railroad Survey gives the pass of Cajon as 400 feet and this is the height given by Selfridge. While this pass or divide is less than 100 feet higher than the Istmina pass between Atrato and San Juan, the nature of the territory is evidently quite different. The gradient from the Atrato to the San Juan is very gradual.

Concerning the Tuyra-Atrato region Selfridge⁴ says in part, pp. 65–66:

On the Atlantic side the alluvial plain of the Atrato extends close up to the spurs jutting out from the divide, and there is found an amount of level ground that nowhere exists on the other side. This appearance that impressed me so strongly on my first reconnaissance to Paya, coupled with the favorable report of the Pacific slope from previous explorers, gave me strong hopes that our explorations in this part of the Isthmus would be crowned with success.

On the Pacific side our survey from the mouth of the Paya to the Cué as well as up that river, indicated plainly that this whole region is a broken country, traversed by deep ravines and hills of moderate height.

From Chipigana to Santa Maria the country is a flat plain, with a rise in this distance of about 10 feet. From Santa Maria to Pinogona, as also to the mouth of the Cupe within a half mile of the river, it is generally level, with here and there elevations of from 25 to 100 feet. The mouth of the Cupe is 48 feet above the sea.

Above the Cupe the whole characteristics of the country change. A line within half a mile of the river, and often closer, is obliged to cross several ranges of hills, known among the natives as the Paloma, the Tres Veces de Parva, the Paca, and the Loma de Diablo, which vary in height from 250 to 400 feet. Various reconnaissances were made to see if these hills could be turned, but they resulted in only finding still higher ground as one receded from the river. The mouth of the Paya is 144 feet above sea-level, and the Cué 179 feet.

The height of the divide at the point crossed by the survey is 710, and through that of the so-called Cacarica Pass is 410 feet.

On the Atlantic side of the divide the descent is much more abrupt, a fall of 200 feet being met with within a mile of the summit.

The fishes of the Tuyra were made known by Meek and Hildebrand in two papers in *Field Museum Natural History Publications*, Zoölogical Series, X, one issued in 1914, the other in 1918.

Only one paper earlier than these considers the fauna of the Tuyra⁵.

The Atrato-Tuyra faunæ problem is comparatively simple. Fifty species of fishes have been taken in the Tuyra. One hundred and four species are known from the two rivers, of which 19 or over 18 per cent are found in both rivers. Thirty-eight per cent of the Tuyra fishes are found in the Atrato.

⁴Selfridge, in his Reports of Explorations and Surveys to ascertain the Practicability of a Ship-Canal between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by the way of the Isthmus of Darien, Washington, 1874, gives an account of the region between the Atrato and the Pacific ocean via the Tuyra.

⁵Boulenger, G. A., "Poissons de l'Amerique Centrale. Viaggio del Dott. Enrico Festa nel Darien e regione vicine." *Bolletino, Mus. Zool. Anat. comp. della Univ. di Torino.* XIV, No. 346, April 29, 1899. This paper deals largely with marine fishes in the estuaries along the Pacific side of Darien.

The genera of 20 more Tuyra fishes are represented in Colombia. Concerning the origin of most of the 19 species there cannot be any doubt; they are abundant in the Atrato-Magdalena, and find their farthest north in the Tuyra or at least in the southern half of Panama. They moved from the Atrato to the Tuyra.

Such undoubtedly are Phanagoniates macrolepis, Ageneiosus caucanus, Loricaria variegata, Curimatus magdalenæ, Astyanax fasciatus, Ctenolucinus beani, Hoplias malabaricus and Hypopomus brevirostris.

It is possible that some species have more recently gone from the Tuyra to the Atrato, but originally all of them went in the other direction. There is no direct evidence that any specifically Pacific slope forms have come over to the Atrato. The tide of migration has all flowed westward. The strictly west-slope things like Awaous transmontanus and Philypnus maculatus have not come across into the Atrato. A number of species whose ancestors came from the Atrato have become more or less modified in the Tuyra. Trachycorystes amblops is a modified fisheri, Pimelodus punctatus a modified clarias.

The species common to the Atrato-Tuyra (18 per cent) as compared with the number of species common to the Atrato and San Juan (30 per cent) may be taken as an inverse measure of the difficulties in crossing from the Atrato to the Tuyra and from the Atrato to the San Juan.

The 11 species of the Tuyra not found in the Atrato or not represented by a species of the same genus are:

1. Lasiancistrus planiceps, 2. Leptancistrus canensis, 3. Astroblepus longifilis, 4. Apareiodon dariensis, 5. Compsura gorgonæ, 6. Pseudocheirodon affinis, 7. Hemibrycon dariensis, 8. Sternarchus rostratus, 9. Mollienisia caucana, 10. Philypnus maculatus, 11. Awaous transmontanus.

Of these the genera of numbers 1, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 are found in the Magdalena or the San Juan and will most probably be found in the Atrato between the two. Leptancistrus is derived from Lasiancistrus, Compsura and Pseudocheirodon from Cheirodon, both found in Colombia. The genera of numbers 1 to 8 find their farthest north in Panama.

Every consideration shows the close affinity of the Tuyra fauna to that of the Atrato, from which it has in large part been derived.

The Chagres Problems. The completion of the Panama Canal has greatly modified the Chagres basin and merged it with that of the Rio Grande on the Pacific side. It is, therefore, a matter of satisfaction that Meek and Hildebrand made a thoro examination of this region before the canal was completed.

Forty-four species of fresh-water fishes were taken from the Chagres before the canal was cut. Of these, 3 species are peculiar to the Chagres. They are members of widely distributed genera. Creagrutus notropoides of the Chagres is scarcely, if at all, distinct from C. affinis; Brycon chagrensis differs but little from B. striatulus of the Pacific side; Neetroplus panamensis is the southernmost one of three species of this genus. The species of the Chagres are distributed among the following ten families:

		Number of Species	Number of Genera
1	Siluridæ (Pimelodinæ)	2	2
			3
4.	Loricariidæ (Plecostominæ)	_	3
_	(Loricariinæ)		1
3.	Characidæ (Cheirodontinæ)		2
	(Tetragonopterinæ)	4	4
	(Bryconinæ)	2	1
	(Glandulocaudinæ)	1	1
	(Characinæ)		1
	(Piabucininæ)		1
	(Erythrininæ)		1
Λ	, -		1
	Gymnotidæ		1
	Pœciliidæ		5
	Mugilidæ	3	2
7.	Atherinidæ	1 .	1
8.	Centropomidæ	1	1
9.	Cichlidæ	4	4
	Gobiidæ	9	8

It will be noted that the Chagres contained no representatives of such Palearctic families as the minnows, suckers, Ameiurine cat fishes, sunfishes, perches and darters, salmon or trout, sturgeons, etc. These families find their farthest south very largely north of Guatemala.

The 10 families belong to several distinct ecological groups. The Gobiidæ, Atherinidæ, Mugilidæ, Centropomidæ, and Pæcilidæ are families with both fresh-water and marine species. The fresh-water genera of these families are largely confined to Central America, the Gobiidæ finding their optimum about Panama

The Pœciliidæ and fresh-water Mugilidæ are more distinctly Central American types than the Gobiidæ, and the Chagres certainly got some of its genera of these families from the north, either by sea or by land. None of the genera of these families find their farthest north in the Chagres and only a few of the genera of the Pœciliidæ extend farther south than Panama. Their ancestors most probably came from the north.

Remain then the Siluridæ, Loricariidæ, Gymnotidæ and Cichlidæ.

Of the Siluridæ, Rhamdia wagneri and Pimelodella chagresi represent the farthest north of genera everywhere on the Atlantic slope from Buenos Aires north and on the Pacific slope at least from Guayaquil north. The ancestors of these species undoubtedly came from the south. The Chagres species are common at least as far south as the Magdalena.

The Loricariidæ flourish everywhere in South America north of Guayaquil and Buenos Aires and the ancestors of all four of the Chagres species came from the south and found their farthest north in the Chagres. Only one member of the family, Ancistrus aspidolepis, has gotten as far as northern Panama.

Of the Characide, the Cheirodontine⁶, Piabucinine, and Erythrinine find their farthest north in the Chagres. The Glandulocaudine reach Costa Rica; the Bryconine and Characine reach Guatemala. Only the Tetragonopterine attain the United States. The Chagres undoubtedly got the ancestors of all of its Characine from the south.

The Cichlidæ have undergone an elaborate evolution in Central America and Mexico as well as in South America, and there is evidence that the Cichlid fauna of the Chagres came in part from the north and in part from the south. The genera Geophagus and Aequidens universally distributed betwen Buenos Aires and Colombia find their farthest north in the Chagres, and the ancestors of Geophagus crassilabris and Aequidens coeruleopunctatus came from the south. The genus Neetroplus, on the other hand, is a Central American product. One species inhabits Nicaragua, one Costa Rica, and the third the Chagres. The genus reaches its farthest south in the Chagres, and the ancestors of Neetroplus panamensis may very well have come from the north. The same is true of Cichlasoma maculicauda, which finds its farthest south in the Chagres.

⁶With one exception?

Viewing the composition of the Chagres fauna from a little different angle, we find that there are 38 genera of fishes in the Chagres and that 28 of these are also found in the Atrato or Magdalena. Two genera, Compsura and Pseudocheirodon, found in all the Panama rivers have closely related genera in the Atrato and Magdalena from which their ancestors no doubt came. Six of the 28 genera—Gambusia, Priapichthys, Mollienisia, Poeciliopsis, Joturus, and Neetroplus—came from the north, altho the first 3 now extend into the Atrato-Magdalena. Menidia is a marine genus with species in the fresh waters in numerous places and came from the ocean. Four are lowland or brackishwater genera of the Gobiidæ, which are found largely in Panama.

As far as the genera give any indication, the Chagres fauna is composed of about 70 per cent derivatives from the south, about 16 per cent derivatives from the north. The rest of the fauna is composed of derivatives from the ocean.

Eighteen, or about 40 per cent of the Chagres species were found in the small streams opposite the Chagres emptying into the Pacific. Forty-three per cent are also found in the Chepo basin, 27 per cent in the Tuyra, and 18 per cent in the Atrato.⁷ The drop in percentage from the Chepo to the Tuyra is due to the fact that some northern species stop at the Chepo and do not extend into the Tuyra (Gambusia episcopi, Mollienisia sphenops, Joturus pichardi) and to the fact that some Chagres-Chepo species are replaced by other species of the same genera in the Tuyra (Piabucina panamensis by festæ, Hoplias microlepis by malabaricus, Priapichthys tridentiger by the variety cana).

The Chagres is the meeting-place of three streams of migration, the largest from the south, a smaller one from the north, and another from the ocean.

The Chagres fauna having come largely from the south, a supplementary question is, Did it arrive by land or by sea?

The Chagres drains into the Caribbean Sea. The nearest large rivers to the south draining into the Caribbean are the Magdalena and the Atrato. The Magdalena basin is much the larger of the two and contains a much more varied fauna than the Atrato. The bulk of the Atrato fauna came from the Magdalena.

If the region between Buenaventura and the canal should be depressed by 400 feet, the Atrato and San Juan valleys would be converted into a channel, and so would the Canal Zone. Large

 $^{^7} Most$ of the 18 per cent are included in the 27 per cent of the Tuyra and 43 per cent of the Chepo.

parts of the Tuyra and Mamoni basins would be submerged. This condition may have obtained during the lifetime of some of the present species and it may be argued that the migration from the Magdalena to the Atrato and Chagres has been very recent. Its beginning may, however, have antedated the last submergence, the species having been preserved in the higher tributaries of the rivers. Leaving this speculation aside and assuming that the present distribution has developed during the present configuration of the country, did the Chagres fauna arrive by land or by sea or by both routes? The answer to this question ought to give us an index to the general question of the migration of fresh-water faunas over land and sea.

The Atrato pours a large amount of fresh water into the Gulf of Darien, which ought to facilitate the migration of fresh-water fishes between this gulf and the Chagres. But a comparison of the faunas of the Atrato, Tuyra, Chepo, and Chagres shows that only *Hyphessobrycon panamensis* got into the Chagres that, as far as we know now, did not also get into the Tuyra and Chepo.

Many species crossed the divide between the Atrato and the Tuyra. As stated above, of the 50 species in the Tuyra, 19 are still found in the Atrato, and the genera of 20 more are represented in Colombia. Some species coming from the Atrato got no farther than the Tuyra, but 11 of the 19 species that presumably went from the Atrato to the Tuyra got into the Rio Chepo. Sixteen more of the Chepo's 37 species probably came from the Tuyra.

Of the 10 species in the Chepo not found in the Tuyra, *Hoplias microlepis* reappears in Guayaquil, 6 find their farthest south in the Chepo, the other 3 belong to the Pacific slope Gobiidæ, some of which are found far south of the Tuyra and will probably be found in it.

Five of the 19 species that presumably went from the Atrato to the Tuyra and Chepo arrived unchanged in the Chagres; Rhamdia wagneri, Pimelodella chagresi, Chætostomus fischeri, Piabucina panamensis, and Hypopomos brevirostris. Several more of the Tuyra species not directly from Atrato are unchanged in the Chagres.

A number of species of the Tuyra, Chepo, or the Pacific slope opposite the Chagres have closely related species in the Chagres. Such pairs are Ancistrus spinosus and chagresi; Ræboides occidentalis and guatemalensis; Brycon striatulus and chagrensis; Brycon argenteus and petrosus; Creagrutus affinis and notropoides; Dormitator latifrons and maculatus; Eleotris picta and pisonis;

Awaous transandeanus and taiasica. Four other species from the Atrato, Tuyra, and Chepo reach the Pacific slope west of the Chagres, but as far as is known did not reach the Chagres. They are Curimatus magdalenæ, Astyanax fasciatus, Ctenolucinus beani, and Thoracocharax maculatus.

A glance at the detailed list given below will show that a number of species find their farthest north in the Chepo basin. Others have not succeeded in passing north of the Tuyra, as if their line of migration had been stopped at one or another of these rivers.

It is a remarkable fact that while 12 of the 23 species of strictly fresh-water families, the Characidæ, Siluridæ, Loricariidæ, Gymnotidæ, and Cichlidæ have crossed the divide at Panama, only Sicydium salvini of the 15 species of the marine and lowland Gobiidæ is identical on the two sides. It would seem that the marine or lowland forms have been separated long enough to become specifically distinct on the two sides and that the intrusion and intermigration of the strictly fresh-water species has been more recent. The isthmus may have been a barrier to the intermigration of marine forms long before it became suitable for colonization by fresh-water species which have not been long enough in the area to become altogether distinct on the two sides. It is also quite probable that a certain amount of intermigration from river to river is still taking place.

There is a very great probability that all of the immigrants of the Chagres from the south except the Atlantic slope *Electridinæ* (Gobiidæ) followed the route Atrato, Tuyra, Chepo (Grande?), Chagres, altho this involved two crossings of the continental divide. Only the partly marine Electridinæ came by way of the ocean, and possibly *Hyphessobrycon panamensis*.

It appears that the ocean served to a very small extent as a highway for the migration of fresh-water fishes, even for such a short distance as that between the Atrato and Chagres.⁸ It is a separate question whether the ocean with its high tides and the long tidal areas of the Tuyra and Chepo facilitated the migration from the Tuyra to the Chepo and Rio Grande.

⁸This conclusion is re-enforced by the fact that aside from members of the Gobiidæ the only fresh-water fish that got from the Tuyra to the San Juan or the reverse without getting into the intermediate Atrato is *Astyanax ruberrimus*, which also went as far south as the Rio Patia.

The Distribution of the Fresh-water Fishes between the Canal Zone and the Atrato

Remarks	fisheri in Atrato Genus in Magdalen eentrolepis in Atrato Genus in the Magdalena	
Atratoro		
Tuyra		1
Среро		-
Pacific slope ⁹	1 2 2	
Chagres		
Costa Rica		
	Rhamdia wagneri (Günther) Pimelodus elarias Bl. Pimelodus elarias Bl. Trachycorystes amblops (M. and H.) Agenoiosus eaucanus. Plecostomus plecostomus panamensis E. Chatostomus fischeri St. Ancistrus spinosus H. Ancistrus spinosus H. Lasiancistrus planicops (M. and H.) Loricaria uracantha (K. and S.) Loricaria uracantha (K. and S.) Loricaria filamentosa latiura E. and V. Loricaria savelesis M. and II. Loricaria filamentosa latiura E. and V. Loricaria eapetonsis M. and II. Loricaria filamentosa Latiura E. and V. Loricaria filamentosa Latiura E. and V.	Sturisoma panamensis (E. and E.)

	Genus in Magdalena	=-longifilis?	in Magdalena basin						Genus in Atrato				Genus in Atrato		Genus in Magdalena	ı				Genus in Atrato		Genus in Atrato			
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Sturisoma eiturensis M. and H	Hoplosternum punctatum H	Astroblepus pirrense (M. and H.)	Pygidium striatum (M. and H.)	Curimatus magdalenæ St	Apareiodon dariensis (M. and II.)	Phanagoniates macrolepis (M. and H.)	Compsura gorgone (E. and C.)	Pseudoehoirodon affinis (IL)	Gephyrocharax atricaudata (M. and H.)	Gephyrocharax intermedius (H.)	Astyanax fasciatus (C.)	Astyanax ruberrimus E	Bryconamericus emperador E. and V.	Bryconamerieus easeajalensis II	Hemibrycon dariensis H	Hyphessobrycon panamensis Durbin	Thoraeoeharax maeulatus (St.)	Croagrutus notropoides M. and H	Creagrutus affinis St.	Ræboides guatemalensis (Günther)	Reboides oeeidentalis II	Brycon striatulus (Kner)	Brycon chagrensis (Kner)	Brycon petrosus M. and H.	

^pThis column includes the territory from north of the Chepo to the Rio Chame north of the Canal Zone.

We will be column contains only those of the Atrato species which are also found in the Tuyra.

We per rare on the Atlantic side.

"On the Pacific side in the Chorrera only.

Equinther records this from the Pacific side.

The Distribution of the Fresh-water Fishes between the Canal Zone and the Atrato-Continued

Remarks								found both north and south	Genus in Atrato			Genus in Magdalena	Brackish water to Mexico	Panama only	south to Porto Bell	Panama only. Genus in Atrato	Tuyra only	Panama only	Panama only	Panama only
Atratoto												-								
Tuyra									1								1	-	-	
Среро									-											
Pacific slope ⁹												,	۰.							
Chagres										-										
Costa Rica																				
		Brycon argenteus M. and H.	Piabucina panamensis Gill	Piabucina festæ Boulenger	Ctenolucinus beani (Fowler)	Hoplias malabaricus Bloch	Hoplias microlepis (Günther)	Gymnotus carapo L. not taken	Sternopygus dariensis H	Hypopomus brevirostris (St.)	Eigenmannia virescens (Val.)	Sternarchus rostratus M. and H	Gambusia nicaraguensis G	Gambusia episcopi St	Gambusia cascajalensis M. and H	Priapichthys tridentiger (Garman)	Priapichthys tridentiger cana M. and H	Priapichthys dariensis (M. and H.)	Priapiehthys panamensis H.	Pæelhopsis elongatus (Gunther)

	штуепти		visnes	oj run	ama
Panama only to Mexico and Cartagena to the Cauca Gulf of Darien to Mexico to R. Cauca and San Juan Toro Point	West Indies and Lower California Guatemala Cuba, Costa Rica, etc.		Genus in Atrato Genus in Atrato To Guartemala	New Granada, west slope Panama	Genus in Magdalena
		1			
				}	
1					
14					
Pœciliopsis isthmensis Regan. Mollienisia sphenops (C. and V.). Mollienisia caucana (St.). Mollienisia cuneata (Garman) not seen. Mollienisia formosa (Girard) not seen. Rivulus elegans St. Rivulus brunneus M. and H.	Mugil incilis G. Agonostomus monticola Bancroft. Agonostomus macracanthus Regan. Joturus piehardi Poey.	Menidia chagresi M. and H. Centropomus parallelus Poey. Centropomus ensiferus P.	Aequidens coruleopunctatus (K. and St.)	Cichlasoma tuyrense M. and H. Cichlasoma sieboldii (K. and St.) not seen. Cichlasoma calobrense M. and H.	Ciehlasoma umbriferum M. and H. Neetroplus panamensis M. and H. Philypnus dormitor Lacépède. Philypnus maculatus (G.). Dormitator maculatus Bloch.

PThis column includes the territory from north of the Chepo to the Rio Chame north of the Canal Zone. ¹⁰This column contains only those of the Atrato species which are also found in the Tuyra. ¹⁴On Atlantic side but not in Chagres.

The Distribution of the Fresh-water Fishes between the Canal Zone and the Atrato-Continued

	Costa Riea Chagres	Pacific slope ⁹	Среро	Tuyra	Atratoro	Remarks
Eleotris picta (K. and St.).						
Eleotris pisonis (Gmelin)						In Magdalena
Eleotris isthmensis H.						0
Guavina guavina (C. and V.)	-					
Leptophilypnus fluviatilis H.						
Microelectris panamensis H.		.				
Microeleotris mindii H.	-					
Hemieleotris latifasciatus (M. and H.)		Į				
Awaous taiasica (Licht.)						
rünther)						
Sieydium salvini Grant	-	1				

⁹This column includes the territory from north of the Chepo to the Rio Chame north of the Canal Zone. ¹⁹This column contains only those of the Atrato species which are also found in the Tuyra.

The Origin of the Central American Fishes. There is some evidence that Central America got at least some of the ancestors of its South American types by another than the Panama route.

Gymnotus and Symbranchus, abundant in South America to Guiana and Colombia, are also found in Guatemala but have not been found in Costa Rica or Panama. The great development of Cichlids in Mexico and Central America may indicate that this family got into Central America before the present bridge of Panama came above the ocean.

A comparison of the first three columns will show how very few of the fishes of southern Panama extend into Costa Rica.



The Magdalena Basin and the Horizontal and Vertical Distribution of Its Fishes

By Carl H. Eigenmann

The Magdalena basin lies in western Colombia and drains the entire area of Colombia between the Cordillera of Bogota, also called Oriental, and the Cordillera Occidental except a small corner south of Popayan. Its western boundary consists of the oldest (Occidental) Cordillera which extends from Cartagena the entire length of the continent to Cape Horn. Nowhere in Colombia does it reach the height attained by it south of Colombia. Its eastern boundary consists of the much higher eastern crests of the Cordillera of Bogota. The Cordillera Central separates the Magdalena valley proper from the Cauca valley. The Cordillera Central is older than the Cordillera of Bogota, hence the Cauca flowing between the oldest chains in Colombia must be the oldest part of the Magdalena basin.

The Magdalena basin is surrounded by high mountain barriers except in the northwest where low areas separate it from the basins of the Sinu and of the Atrato beyond. It is the reservoir from which the Atrato and thru the Atrato the San Juan to the south and the Tuyra, Chepo, and Chagres to the west and north, got part of the ancestors of their present fresh-water fish fauna. Where did the Magdalena get its fishes?

Physical Features of the Magdalena Basin. The Magdalena basin may conveniently be divided into five sections:
(1) the Andean torrents flowing from the heights to the valleys;
(2) the Upper Cauca; (3) the Upper Magdalena; (4) the Lower Magdalena; and (5) the Cesar.

The Cauca and the Magdalena rise near the second degree of North latitude. They unite near 9° 30′ North latitude and empty near 11° north into the Caribbean Sea.

Veatch (Quito to Bogota, 1917) says of the Cauca:

The three great physiographic provinces between the Cordillera del Choco (Occidental) and the Cordillera del Quindio (Central) are thus:

First—The inter-mountain plains of the present Departments of Cauca and Valle del Cauca which occupy the first 250 miles of the depression.

Second—The region of hills and valleys which lie between the two chains along the Cauca River in the Departments of Caldas and Antioquia. The Cauca River, after traversing a portion of the southern plains, flows in this second division of the inter-mountain depression through a series of gorges.

Third—The river-plain of the lower Cauca, in north-central Antioquia and southern Bolivar, which, bounded by the gradually disappearing spurs of the mountains, soon amalgamates with the great low plain of the Magdalena River.

The southern plains (part first, above) area of this inter-mountain depression is divided into three parts: the Plain of the Patia, the Plain of Popayan, and the Plain of Cali. The Plain of the Patia occupies the southern quarter of this area, the Plain of Popayan the next quarter and the Plain of Cali the northern half. The last is thus about 125 miles long and 15 miles wide.

Of these, the plain of Popavan, with a mean elevation of about 6,000 feet, is the highest, and contains the divide between the waters of the Atlantic and the Pacific. However, there is no marked hill mass between the two drainage basins, such as we had inferred from published maps and accounts. and one of the surprises of the journey was to find that in the Plain of Popayan we had crossed from the tributaries of the Rio Patia, which flows into the Pacific thru a great gorge in the Western Andes at the very southern end of the Plain of the Patia, to the tributaries of the Rio Cauca, which flows into the Atlantic by way of the hill country of Antioquia, without having appreciated that we had passed across the hydrographic divide between the two oceans. One would naturally expect in the Andes of South America that the divide between two great river systems, tributary to different oceans, would be a marked mountain crest, and it is perhaps this wholly natural preconception which has led to the showing on a number of maps of such a mountain range across this plain between the head-waters of the two streams and has caused rather misleading statements in many geographic descriptions.

We found the divide to occur here in a rolling plain where the low elevation between the two river systems is of less topographic importance than the elevations between certain tributaries of either river. Looking across the plain from either of the mountain slopes, it would be impossible to say with certainty, in many cases, which little tributary belongs to the Cauca and which to the Patia. The line of this inter-oceanic divide crosses the plain of Popayan in an east-west direction. On the west it mounts to the summit of the Western Andes and then turning abruptly northward, follows it very closely on the western side of the plains area; while to the east it climbs the other chain, and turning abruptly south, follows the summit of the mountains on the east side of the Popayan and Patia Plains.

There is in this general plains-region the suggestion of a remnant of a cross-range, but it does not lie between the Cauca and Patia drainages, but near the northern end of the Plain of Popayan, and a number of miles north of the head-waters of the northward flowing Cauca. It is somewhat near the boundary between the Plains of Cali and Popayan, but the separation of these into distinct units rests on a marked difference in elevation rather than on this feature. Perhaps at one time in the geologic past this remnant of a

cross-range was an important feature in the drainage systems of this region, and while it is certainly not so to-day, its presence adds but another feature to the physiographic history of the Cauca River, which will some day be unravelled.

The Plains of Cali and Patia lie some 3,000 feet below the Plain of Popayan, and the latter is therefore deeply trenched towards its northern and southern borders by the streams which cross it on their way to these lower levels. The Plain of Cali has suffered very little erosion. It is slightly concave, sloping up to the mountains on either side, and between its southern end, thirty miles south of Cali, and its northern limit, near Cartago, it has a slope of about four feet per mile, and may be regarded as a plain between 3,000 and 3,500 feet above sea-level. The Cauca River flows through the Cali Plain from end to end, and the levelness of the land, together with the gentle rainfall and the healthy warm character of the region, have all combined to cause it to be regarded as one of the garden spots of Colombia.

North of Cartago the Cauca flows thru the knot formed by the union of the Western and Central Cordilleras. In 110 miles, between Cartago and Boca de Nechi it drops from an elevation of 3,000 to 500 feet and forms, with the lower Magdalena, No. 4 of the above regions.

The Magdalena descends rapidly from its sources to Neiva, which has an elevation of 1,442 feet. From Neiva near 3° North it descends more gradually to Girardot, at 1,056 feet, and Beltran or Ambalema, 774 feet near 5° North. Between Beltran, Honda, and La Dorado there are rapids where the river cuts its way out from a trough in the Cordilleras of Bogota to the plain between the Central Cordilleras and the Cordilleras of Bogota. This lower Magdalena (below 600 feet) with the Cauca below Boca de Nechi forms No. 4 in the present classification. No. 5, the Rio Cesar, rises in the southeastern part of the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta, flows a little west of south and empties into the Magdalena at El Banco. It is the only stream in Colombia with a southward flow that finally enters the Atlantic.

The Fishes of the Magdalena Basin. In the lower Magdalena (No. 4), collections have been made in the Cienega near the mouth of the Magdalena, at Caceres on the Cauca, and at Bodega Central for Steindachner and at Soplaviento, Calamar, and at various places to Honda during my reconnaissance of Colombia. It is from this part of the river that Humboldt probably got his notes of the fishes mentioned in Recueil d'Observation de Zoölogie et Anatomie. Nothing is known from the Rio Cesar. In the Upper Magdalena the only collection was made at Girardot. In the Upper Cauca I collected in the Plains of

Cali in tributaries of the Cauca, at Boquilla, Piedra Moler, Cartago, Paila, Cali, and in the Cauca itself at the port of Cali.

From the torrential mountain tributaries, collections were made at St. Agustin for the British Museum; in a line from Honda to Bogota, on the Plains of Bogota, in a line from Bogota thru Santander¹, all during and for my Reconnaissance of Colombia; in the Santa Marta Mountains by the party of the University of Michigan; at Ibagué and Toche, by myself; at Popayan by Humboldt; and in Antioquia by parties of the American Museum of Natural History.

Our knowledge of the fauna is still deficient for all of these regions, more particularly the upper Magdalena, the rapids of the Cauca, the torrential streams of the Western and Central Cordilleras. Nothing is known concerning the fauna of the Cesar.

In a system as large as the Magdalena there are many units of environment each of which has its own complement of species. Not all of them unique, to be sure, but nevertheless containing a per cent of uniques. The sum of the faunas of many such units is very probably greater than the number of species found in a smaller river system. The number of species in a given stream is proportional to the size of the system to which it belongs.

The Magdalena fauna is more like that of the Orinoco than the Guayas fauna of Ecuador is like that of the Magdalena. The resemblance is five times greater if the number of identical species is taken as a criterion.

There are one hundred and fifty-odd species belonging to seventy-odd genera of fresh-water and brackish-water fishes known to occur in the Magdalena basin.

Of these the common eel and the tarpon were contributed by North America thru the Caribbean Sea. The tarpon found in the Caribbean Sea and Gulf of Mexico enters many of the rivers discharging into them.

The common eel of North America descends the ocean to spawn. The young enter the rivers. So far but one small specimen collected by the Expedition from the University of Michigan has been found in the Magdalena or as far as that goes from any of the rivers of South America. It was a stray.

Gambusia, Mollienisia, Agonostomus, and four genera of the Eleotridinæ, possibly also Rivulus, were contributed by Central America.

¹The fishes in this area were considered in "The Fish Fauna of the Cordillera of Bogota." Journ. Washington Acad. Sci., X. pp. 460–468, 1920.

Several genera pertain to the Andes and may be autochthonous or may have come from the south. Astroblepus is a high Andean genus forming the family Astroblepidæ found in Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru, possibly also parts of Bolivia. Several species are found in the Magdalena basin. The genera Lasiancistrus, Pseudancistrus, and Chætostomus of the Loricariidæ or mailed catfishes have nearly the same distribution as Astroblepus but do not reach such great altitudes. One species of each genus is found in the Magdalena basin. The genus Pygidium is a swift-water mountain genus distributed from southern Panama to Guiana and south to Rio Grande do Sul and Patagonia wherever high altitudes or swift water form a suitable environment for it. Several species are found in different parts of the Andes within the Magdalena basin.

Fifty-odd genera in the Magdalena basin, 76 per cent, are also found east of the easternmost Cordilleras.

The rest are either peculiar to the Magdalena basin or to the Magdalena-Atrato-Chagres-San Juan. These are in detail:

Xyliphius confined to the upper Magdalena is an offshoot of Bunocephalus, a genus widely distributed from the Atrato to Paraguay but not yet caught in the Magdalena. Cetopsorhamdia and Nannorhamdia are catfishes derived from Pimelodella—like Pimelodinæ, which are found abundantly in our area as well as east of the Andes.

Eremophilus, confined to the plain of Bogota, is an offshoot from Pygidium. It is a Pygidium without ventrals.

Grundulus, also confined to the plain of Bogota, is a member of the Cheirodontinæ abundantly distributed in western Colombia as well as all thru the east.

Genycharax of the Cauca is either a derivative of Charax or of Astyanax, both of which have a universal distribution in tropical America.

Microgenes and Argopleura are derivatives of Bryconamericus, the latter found also in the Atrato and San Juan.

Acestrocephalus replaces Acestrorhamphus of the east. Ctenolucinus replaces Xyphostomus.

Gilbertolus is an offshoot from Charax.

Othonophanes is derived from Brycon if distinct.

There are no genera in all of these peculiar to the Magdalena which might not equally well have developed anywhere east of the Andes. Genycharax and Gilbertolus offer the greatest difficulty. While some of them are highly interesting, even thrilling to the naturalist, none of them are out of the ordinary evolution of genera elsewhere in tropical South America.

This brings us to the genera also found east of the Andes. A few of these belong primarily to Venezuela and the Guianas. They are:

Creagrutus, found along the eastern base of the Andes from the Rio Beni to Lake Valencia and even British Guiana.

Gephyrocharax but recently discovered about Lake Valencia. Its place of greatest abundance is western Colombia.

Hemibrycon is found as far as Trinidad.

Panaque and Hemicetopsis are also found in the Amazon. All of the rest of the numerous genera enjoy a universal distribution east of the Andes.

It would scarcely be possible to isolate any place as large as the Magdalena basin anywhere east of the Andes and north of the La Plata that would not contain all of the rest of the genera.

The question arises whether isolation by the formation of a barrier is not the natural, most probable explanation of the present Magdalena fauna.

It is quite out of the question to transport all of these genera over the present barrier formed by the Cordilleras of Bogota, especially if we consider that the Cauca has not been able to contribute anything to the Dagua or Patia over a divide much lower. Either the Cordillera of Bogota is younger than the Magdalena and its growth cut off the Magdalena area with its fauna from a general lowland mass extending eastward from the Cordillera Central or there has existed a possible route of migration perhaps via Lake Maracaibo. The segregation could not have taken place very recently, for in most cases the species are distinct on the two sides of the Cordilleras. The segregation took place before the lifetime of most of the present species. It is, nevertheless, startling that about 20 per cent of the species of the Magdalena are also found east of the Andes.

The species found on both sides of the Cordilleras of Bogota follow. Those marked with a star were taken between Bogota and Barrigon.

Pseudopimelodus zungaro (H.)

*Rhamdia sebæ C. and V.

*Pimelodus clarias (Bl.)

*?Pimelodella chagresi (St.)

Pseudoplatystoma fasciatum (L.) Sorubim lima (Bl. and Sch.) Ageneiosus dentatus (K.)

Astroblepus cyclopus (H.)

*Astroblepus grixalvii H.

*Astroblepus longifilis (St.)

*Corydoras melanotænia R.

*Pseudancistrus daguæ (E.)

*?Pseudancistrus pediculatus (E.)

?Sturisoma aurea St.

*Sturisoma leightoni (R.)

Curimatus magdalenæ St In Maracaibo only east of the Cordilleras.

Parodon suborbitalis C. and V. In Maracaibo.

?Abramites eques (St.)

Leporinus striatus K.

Characidium fasciatum R.

Pyrrhulina semifasciata R.

Hyphessobrycon inconstans (E. and O.)

Astyanax fasciatus (C.)

*Creagrutus beni E.

Rœboides dayi St.

?Ctenolucinus insculptus St. In Lake Maracaibo?

*Hoplias malabaricus (Bl.)

*Gymnotus carapo L.

*Sternopygus macrurus (Bl and Sch.)

Eigenmannia virescens (V.)

Hypopomus brevirostris St.

Synbranchus marmoratus Bl.

Tarpon atlanticus (C. and V.)

Plagioscion surinamensis (Bl.)

One looks in vain for any common physical character in this series of species. Some are huge fishes, Pseudoplatystoma; others are very small, Characidium. The great majority are fishes of the lowlands (1,000 feet and less) and comparatively quiet waters. Such fishes as Astroblepus and Pygidium ought perhaps to be excluded, since they are found at the very highest localities where an occasional crossover may still be expected. At the other extreme such species as the Tarpon which enter the sea might also be excluded, and in fact those found on both sides in estuaries only are not given.

Leaving these out of count, the one thing most of them have in common is their very wide distribution. This signifies either facility in getting about or a greater staying quality of their specific characters under varying environments, or both. Parallel forms have developed in nearly all of the genera found on the two sides in which the species have not remained the same. It would take us too far to go into all of these.

That the similarity on the two sides is not of very recent date is shown by an examination of the fauna at the eastern base of the Andes. Very little is known of the fauna of eastern Colombia and western Venezuela. What we do know of it indicates that the Maracaibo fauna is probably identical with the Magdalena fauna, i.e. differs no more from it than the latter differs from the Atrato fauna. Almost all we know of Lake Maracaibo was recorded by Cuvier and Valenciennes. I have had recent opportunities to examine the fishes from and about Barrigon, Villavicencio, and the Llanos to the northeast of them. I find that a number of genera of wide eastern distribution which have not been found in the Magdalena basin come up to the base of the Cordilleras east of Bogota. They are Chasmocranes, Imparfinis and Sciades, three catfishes; Erythrinus, Copeina, Hemigrammus, Moenkhausia, Knodus, Creatochanes, Stevardia, Acestrorhynchus, all Characins; Apistogrammus, and Crenicichla of the Cichlidæ. All of them are widely distributed in the east. Did they develop in the east since the formation of the Cordilleras of Bogota or have they migrated to the base of these Cordilleras after they had become an effective barrier? Other conspicuous absentees in the Magdalena are genera of wide distribution in the east which have not been found near the base of the Andes of Colombia. They are the genera of the Hemiodinæ, Nannostomus, Tetragonopterus, the Agoniatinæ, the Stethaprioninæ, Serrasalmoninæ, Mylinæ, Acestrorhamphus, all of which belong to the Characidæ, Pachyurus of the Scienide, Chetobranchopsis and Cichla of the Cichlidæ, Electrophorus the electric eel, the gigantic Arapaima, and the ancient Osteoglossum.

It would be desirable in pursuit of a possible further study of the origin of the Magdalena fauna to make collections in the Maracaibo basin and thence east by way of the Pass of Hato, 800 feet into the Orinoco basin.

A comparison of the genera in the upper Cauca above the rapids of Antioquia and in the Potaro river of Guiana above the Kaieteur fall shows that the two regions have but three genera in common. They are Pygidium, Astyanax, and Rivulus, all genera of the very widest distribution in the whole of South America. The species of the three genera are different in the Cauca and the Potaro. In other respects the faunæ of the Cauca and the Potaro are very different.

Table of Distribution of the Fishes of the Magdalena Basin

		Marine fishes entering mouth of river	Lower Magdalena	Upper Magdalena	Cauca	${ m Torrents}$ and high altitude 2
1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18.	Potamotrygon magdalenæ (D.) Xyliphius magdalenæ E Hexanematichthys assimilis (G.) Pseudopimelodus zungaro (H.) Perugia xanthus (E.) Cetopsorhamdia nasus E. and F Cetopsorhamdia boquilla E Rhamdia wagneri (G.). Rhamdia sebæ (C. and V.) Nannorhamdia nemacheir E. and F. Pimelodella chagresi (St.) Pimelodus grosskopfi St Pimelodus clarias (Bl.) Pseudoplatystoma fasciatum (L.) Sorubim lima (Bl. and Sch.). Doras crocodili H Trachycorystes insignis (St.). Ageneiosus caucanus St					_ 5,700
19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29. 30. 31.	Ageneiosus dentatus K. Astroblepus homodon (R.) Astroblepus guentheri (B.) Astroblepus chapmani (E.) Astroblepus unifasciatus E. Astroblepus unifasciatus E. Astroblepus grixalvii H. Astroblepus micrescens E. Astroblepus chotæ (R.) Astroblepus longifilis (St.) Hemicetopsis othonops E. Pygidium stellatum E. Pygidium chapmani E.		?			$\begin{array}{c} -7,260 \\ -2 \\ -5,700 \\ -4,000 \\ -6,000 \\ -6,500 \\ -10,700 \\ -8,500 \\ -10,000 \\ -6,000 \\ \end{array}$

²The numbers in this column indicate the highest recorded altitude in feet.

Table of Distribution of the Fishes of the Magdalena Basin—Continued

		Marine fishes entering mouth of river	Lower Magdalena	Upper Magdalena	Cauca	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{Torrents and} \\ \textbf{high altitude}^2 \end{array}$
33. 34. 35. 36. 37. 38. 39. 40. 41. 42. 43. 44. 45. 46. 47. 48. 49. 50. 51. 52. 53. 54. 55. 56. 57. 58. 60. 61. 62. 63. 64. 65. 66. 67.	Pygidium caliense E. Pygidium stramineum E. Pygidium bogotense E. Pygidium nigromaculatum (B.) Pygidium panneaui E. Pygidium panneaui E. Pygidium retropinne R. Pygidium venulosum St. Pygidium latistriatum E. Pygidium striatum M. and H. Eremophilus mutisii H. Corydoras melanotænia R. Hoplosternum magdalenæ E. Plecostomus tenuicauda St. Pterygoplichthys undecimalis G. Lasiancistrus caucanus E. Pseudancistrus carnegiei E. Pseudancistrus eavenus E. Pseudancistrus estosus (B.) Panaque gibbosus (St.) Cochliodon hondæ R. Chætostomus fischeri St. Chætostomus thomsoni R. Loricaria magdalenæ St. Loricaria filamentosa St. Loricaria filamentosa St. Loricaria filamentosa St. Sturicaria variegata St. Sturisoma panamense E. and V. Loricaria variegata St. Sturisoma panamense E. and E. Sturisoma leightoni (R.) Farlowella gracilis B. Curimatus mivartii St. Parodon suborbitalis C. and V.		?			- 7,400 - 9,000 - 4,000 - 5,000 - 10,000 - 4,200 - 7,300 - 9,000 - 3,320 - 7,400? - 7,300

Table of Distribution of the Fishes of the Magdalena Basin—Continued

		Marine fishes entering' mouth of river	Lower Magdalena	Upper Magda¹ena	Cauca	Torrents and high altitude
68.	Prochilodus longirostris St		_		1	
69.	Prochilodus magdalenæ St		_	-		
70.	Prochilodus steindachneri E					
71.	Leporinodus sexdentatus E					
72.	Abramites eques St					
73.	Leporinus striatus K					
74.	Leporinus muyscorum St					
75.	Characidium fasciatum R		?		_	
76.	Characidium caucanum E					
77.	Characidium phoxceephalum					
78.	Pyrrhulina semifasciata R		9	_		
79.	Grundulus bogotensis H					- 9,000
80.	Odontostilbe hastata E		-			
81.	Cheirodon insignis St		-			
82.	Brycon rubricauda St					
83.	Brycon henni E					
84.	Brycon moorei St	ľ				
85.	Othonophanes labiatus (St.)	1				
86.	Hyphessobrycon inconstans (E. and O.)					
87.	Hyphessobrycon pœcilioides E					
88.	Hyphessobrycon panamensis D					
89.	Astyanax bimaculatus borealis E					
90.	Astyanax magdalenæ E. and H					
91.	Astyanax atratoensis E					
92.	Astyanax caucanus (St.)		_	_		
93.	Astyanax filiferus (E.)					
94.	Astyanax microlepis E					
95.	Astyanax fasciatus (C.)		/	(_	
96.	Astyanax aurocaudatus E					- 5,700
97.	Genycharax tarpon E				-	
98.	Creagrutus beni E	1				3,60 0
99.	Creagrutus brevipinnis E					
100.	Creagrutus magdalenæ E		-	-		-7,258
101.	Creagrutus affinis St					
102.	Creagrutus caucanus E					

Table of Distribution of the Fishes of the Magdalena Basin—Continued

		Marine fishes entering mouth of river	Lower Magdalena	Upper Magdalena	Cauca	Torrents and high altitude ²
103.	Microgenys minutus E					
104.	Argorleura conventus E					
105.	Argopleura diquensis E					-7,258
106.	Argopleura magdalenensis E					• ,200
107.	Bryconamericus caucanus E					-5,700
107.	Hemibrycon tolimæ (E.)					-7,000
109.	Hemibrycon colombianus E					- 4,100
110.	Hemibrycon boquillæ E					-5,700
111.	Hemibrycon dentatus E					0,,00
112.	Hemibrycon decurrens E					
113.	Gephyrocharax caucanus E					
114.	Gephyrocharax melanocheir E					
115.	Chalcinus magdalenæ St					
116.	Thoracocharax magdalenæ E					
117.	Salminus affinis St					
118.	Charax magdalenæ St					
119.	Rœboides magdalenæ E					
120.	Rœboides caucæ E					
121.	Rœboides dayii St					
122.	Acestrocephalus anomalus (St.)			_		
123.	Gilbertolus alatus (St.)					
124.	Ctenolucins insculptus St					
125.	Hoplias malabarieus (Bl.)					
126.	Sternopygus macrurus (Bl. and Sch.)					
127.	Eigenmannia virescens (V.)					
128.	Hypopomus brevirostris St					
129.	Sternarchus rostratus M. and H			_		
130.	Sternarchus mariæ E. and F					·
131.	Synbranchus marmoratus Bl					
132.	Anguilla chrysypa R					
133.	Tarpon atlanticus (C. and V.)					
134.	Gambusia caliensis E. and H			_		
135.	Mollienisia sphenops (C. and V.)		-			
136.	Mollienisia caucana (St.)					
137.	Rivulus elegans St				_	
138.	Rivulus magdalenæ E. and H			_		-4,250

Table of Distribution of the Fishes of the Magdalena Basin—Continued

		Marine fishes entering mouth of river	Lower Magdalena	Upper Magdalena	Cauca	Torrents and high altitudes
139.	Rivulus brevis R.?					
140.	Mugil brasiliensis A					
141.	Mugil incilis G	_				
142.	Mugil liza C. and V					
143.	Agonostomus macracanthus R		_			
144.	Centropomus undecimalis (Bl.)					
145.	Centropomus ensiferus P					
146.	Centropomus pedimacula P					
147.	Plagioscion surinamensis (Bl.)					
	Hæmulon plumieri L Bairdiella armata Gill					
	Gerres rhombeus C. and V					
	Gerres plumieri C. and V					
	Trichiurus lepturus L					
	Spheroides testudineus (L)					
148.	Geophagus steindachneri E. and H.					-4,250
149.	Aequidens latifrons (St.)					
150.	Cichlasoma kraussii (St.)					
151.	Cichlasoma umbriferum M. and H			_		
152.	Dormitator maculatus Bl		-			
153.	Eleotris pisonis (Gmelin)					
154.	Sieydium salvini Grant		_			
155.	Awaous decemlineatus E					
	Totals		78	54	29	35
	Per cent of the total, about		50	35	18.7	22.6

The categories into which I have divided the fauna of the Magdalena basin are not of equal value nor are the contents of the different regions equally well known. Certainly none of them are exhaustively known. The fishes in the first column are really marine fishes that wander into or live more or less permanently in the estuaries. The "Lower Magdalena" includes the Magdalena from its mouth to La Dorado and the Cauca to Caceres.

In the "Upper Magdalena" are included all that are known from south of La Dorado in the main stream and its larger tributaries to (including) Ibagué. It should take in the contents to Neiva. In reality all we know has come from between Honda and Girardot with the tributaries in this short stretch. Many or all of these will also be found in the lower Magdalena. There is always a reasonable expectation that the fishes in any stretch will be found lower down and there is no sharp break between Honda and the river below La Dorado.

Similarly the column for the Cauca should include everything from the rapids below Cartago to the head of navigation, but nothing is known from Cali upward.

Finally, the last column includes a variety of streams from the highest altitudes down to the mouths of the streams where torrential conditions give place to large stream conditions. I give the highest known altitude in feet where it was obtainable. In some cases the altitude may be the sole factor determining the presence or absence of a species. In many others torrential conditions that frequently go with altitude determine the distribution.

Of the species found in the upper Cauca, 11 are also found in the upper Magdalena and 5 in the lower Magdalena.

Of the 54 species in the upper Magdalena, 32 are also found in the lower Magdalena.

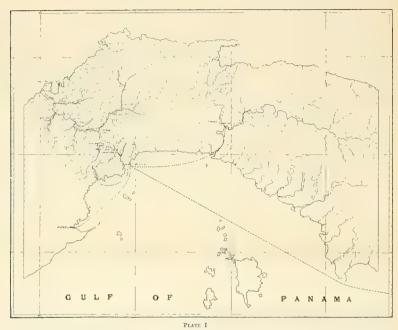
Conclusion. The above analysis demonstrates that the fish fauna of the Magdalena basin was derived in small part from the ocean and in larger part from Central America. It demonstrates beyond a peradventure that most of it had an origin in common with that of the Orinoco basin to the east of it, and that the fauna of the Magdalena was segregated from the general fauna of the Orinoco by the formation of the Cordillera of Bogota between the two, at a time antedating the development of most of the present species. It also demonstrates that if the above conclusions are valid some species found on both sides antedate the formation of the Cordillera of Bogota; that the stripes of the large catfish, the Bagre tigre have persisted during the entire time since the Cordillera of Bogota began to be an effective barrier against the intermigration of the fishes of the two sides.











Panning from the 80th meridian to the month of the Tuyra showing lines of travel of Meek and Hilbebrand while collecting fishes. For the continuation customed and southward see Plate II. From Report of the Isthmum Canul Commission 1899-1901.



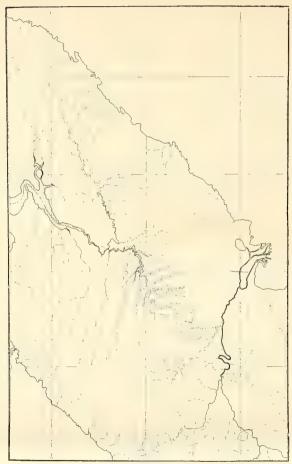


PLATE II For explanation see Plate I



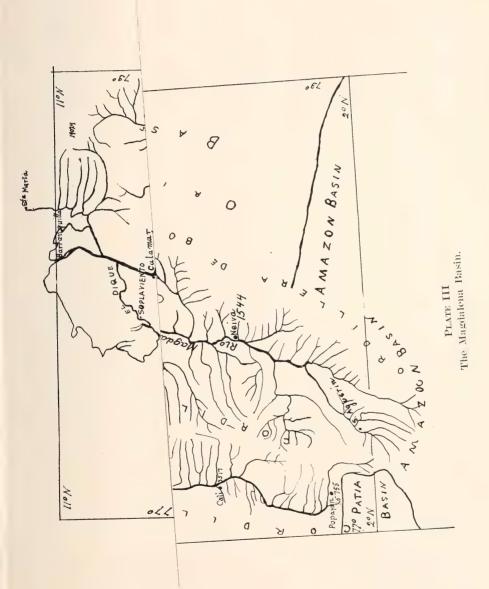
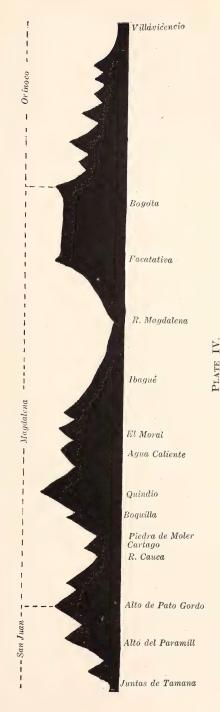






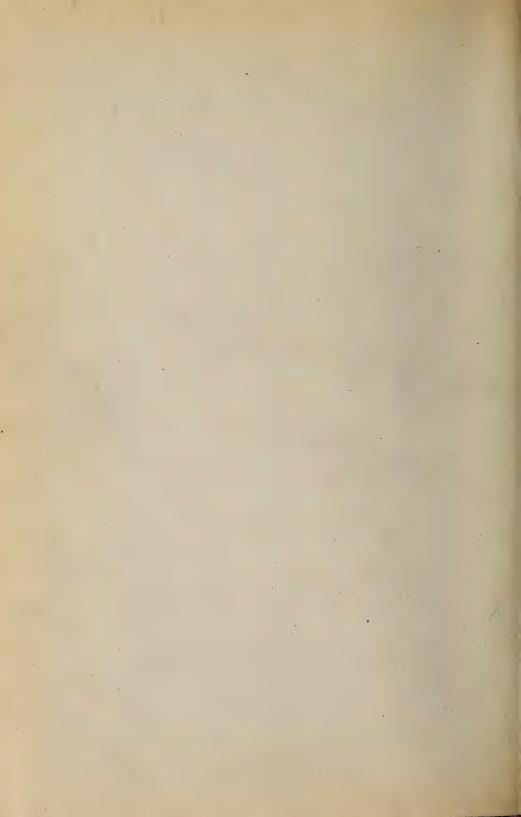
PLATE III
The Magdalena Basin





Section across the Magdalena Valley and Andes at the latitude of Bogota. In part after Holton.





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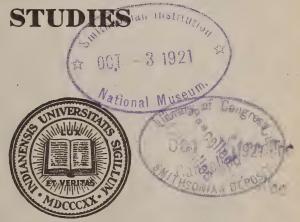
Table of Contents

VOLUME VIII

- 48. INDEX VERBORUM DE COVARRUVIAS OROZCO: TESORO DE LA LENGUA CASTELLANA, O ESPANOLA. Madrid, 1674-1673. By John M. Hill, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Spanish, Indiana University.
- 49. JUVENILE DELINQUENCY and ADULT CRIME. Certain associations of juvenile delinquency and adult crime in Gary, Ind., with special reference to the immigrant population. By EDNA HATFIELD ED-MONDSON, Ph.D., Assistant Professor in the Extension Division, Indiana University.
- 50. WILLIAM DE MORGAN AND THE GREATER EARLY VICTORIANS. By WILL T. HALE, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of English, Indiana University.
- 51. REPORT OF THE DEAN OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, INDIANA UNIVERSITY.



INDIANA UNIVERSITY



Study No. 48

INDEX VERBORUM

DE

Covarruvias Orozco: Tesoro de la Lengva Castellana, o Española. Madrid, 1674-1673.

LO PUBLICA

JOHN M. HILL

The Indiana University Studies are intended to furnish a means for publishing some of the contributions to knowledge made by instructors and advanced students of the University. The Studies are continuously numbered; each number is paged independently.

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Prólogo

En 1611 publicó en Madrid El Licenciado Don Sebastian de Covarruvias Orozco la primera edición de su Tesoro de la Lengva Castellana, o Española. Unos sesenta y tres años después salió a l z la segunda edición de este *Tesoro*, añadido por el padre Benito Remigio Noydens. Esta última edición fué publicada en dos partes, la primera con fecha 1674, la segunda con fecha 1673, e iba acompañada de un tratado Del Origen y Principio de la Lengva Castellana, o Romance que oy se vsa en España, compuesto por el Doctor Bernardo Aldrete.

Al publicarse la primera edición del Diccionario de la Lengua Española por la Real Academia Española, el llamado de Autoridades, (6 tomos, folio, Madrid, 1726–1739), se reconoció el grande valor de la obra de Covarruvias en los términos siguientes:

Es evidente que à este Autor se le debe la glória de haver dado principio à obra tan grande, que ha servido à la Académia de clara luz en la confusa obscuridàd de empressa tan insigne;..........pero la Real Académia, venerando el noble pensamiento de Covarrubias, y siguiendole en las voces en que halló proporción y verisimilitud, ha formado el Diccionario, sujetandose à aquellos princípios......(Prólogo, Pag. 1).

Desde entonces acá, ambas ediciones del *Tesoro* han escaseado muchísimo y a la vez el interés por el estudio de la lengua y literatura españolas del siglo xvII ha tomado un aumento muy considerable. Debido a ésta y a otras varias causas los hispanistas de todos los países han venido reconociendo más y más cada día el mérito de la obra de nuestro autor, de tal manera que la consulta de ésta ha llegado a ser poco menos que indispensable para todo aquel que quiera dedicarse al estudio de la lengua española del siglo xvII.

Sin embargo, dicha consulta no es siempre fácil. El orden de las voces del diccionario, si bien principalmente alfabético, se halla determinado a menudo por consideraciones meramente etimológicas o fonológicas. El autor declara frecuentemente (e. g., s. v. Cafir, celoso, cielo, fenix, et al.) que no escribe para Romancistas. Y anuncia que su propósito es el de investigar las etimologías (s. v. Bryxa....."no me detendre en estender

esta materia, sino acudir a mi instituto, que es investigar las etimologias de los vocablos".....véase también CANDELA, CARIDAD, CIELO).

El Indice que sigue aspira a servir de doble propósito: (1) facilitar a los que se sirven del diccionario la consulta más pronta y rentajosa; (2) proporcionar a los estudiantes del español del siglo xvII una lista de todas las palabras definidas en el único diccionario de mérito considerable publicado en España antes del 1726.

A este fin se ha elegido la edición de 1674–1673, ya que contiene un vocabulario algo más extensivo que la de 1611. Con excepción de las eliminaciones abajo apuntadas, todos los vocablos definidos en dicha edición se incluyen en este *Indice*:

- 1. Los adverbios terminados en -mente, a no ser que encabecen un artículo, se excluyen.
- 2. Los participios pasivos, a no ser que encabecen un artículo o tengan sentido especial, se excluyen.
- 3. Los derivados sin definición se omiten.
- 4. Los nombres propios, a no ser que encabecen un artículo, se excluyen por regla general, bien que unos cuantos, por ofrecer algún interés particular, se admiten.

Las faltas de ortografía son numerosas, pero en este *Indice* no se ha hecho•ninguna enmienda.

Los cambios de ortografía son igualmente numerosos, y al consultar el diccionario se deben tener en cuenta las siguientes substituciones ortográficas:

```
b y v, inicial e intervocálica, se usan una por otra.
   c por z
   c por s, sobre todo delante de e, i.
   ch por c o qu, común en voces de origen griego.
   em por en
   es por ex
   f por h
   g por j, delante de e, i
   gue por hue
   h inicial, no se escribe generalmente.
   i por j
   J (mayúscula), no se imprime, pero está substituida por I,
X, j
   m por n, delante de b.
   o por u
   r por l
```

rr por r

ss por s

ti por ci

u por o

v por b

y, intervocálica, sigue, por regla general, a intervocálica en orden alfabético.

Y (mayúscula) está representada por I.

z por c, sobre todo delante de e, i.

Muchos adjetivos se imprimen sólo en la forma feminina (a veces seguidos de la voz cosa).

Muchos nombres se imprimen solamente en plural.

Orden y disposición de este INDEX

Las voces que encabezan un artículo en el diccionario se imprimen en VERSALITAS.

Las voces derivadas, las afines, y las que se hallan sólo en el cuerpo de un artículo se imprimen en letra romana.

Las voces entre los signos () designan otros artículos en donde se pueden encontrar explicaciones adicionales.

Los numerales puestos después de una voz indican que dicha voz encabeza igual número de artículos distintos, ya sea en orden alfabético, ya en el apuntado.

Se ha guardado el orden rigurosamente alfabético en este Index, hasta el punto de colocar los nombres en plural en un lugar distinto del que exige el singular.

Abreviaturas

err. = erratum, error

s. =sequitur, sigue a

v. = vide, véase

ABIGARRADO

ABIGEO

A	abigiamento v . ABIGARRADO
A	ABIL
A. B. C.	ABILA
ABABOL (AMAPOLA)	abilidad v. ABIL
ABAD	abilitar v . ABIL
ABADEIO	ABILTAR
abadejo v. ABADEIO; CANTA-	ABIMELECH
RIDES	ABINTESTATO
ABADESA	ABIRON
ABAHAR (BAHO)	ABISADO
abalançar v. ABALANZARSE	ABISAG
ABALANZARSE	ABISMALES
ABARCA	ABISMO
ABARCAR (SOBACO)	ABISPA
abarraganado v. BARRAGAN	ABISPADO 8. AVISPA; v. ABISPA
ABARRAGANARSE (BARRAGAN)	abitable v . ABITAR
ABARRANCARSE (BARRANCO)	abitacion v . ABITAR
abastado v. basto	abitaculo v. ABITAR
ABASTAR	abitador v. ABITAR
ABASTO	ABITAR
ABATIDA	ABIVAR
abatir v. batir	ABLANDAR (BLANDA)
ABAXAR	ABLENTAR
ABDALA 1, 2	ABOCAR
ABDALACIZ	ABOFETEAR (BOFETADA)
ABEIA .	ABOGACIA
ABEION	ABOGADO
ABEIORVCO	ABOLENGO
ABENVZ	abolorio v. ABOLENGO
ABERTVRA	ABOLLAR (BOLLO)
ABESTRVZ	ABOMINABLE
ABETO	ABOMINACION
abezado v . BEZO	ABOMINAR
ABEZAR (BEZO)	abonar v. bveno
abia v . ABIAS	ABONDO (ABVNDAR)
ABIAS	ABORDAR (BORDAR)
ABIATHAR	ABORIGINES
ABIERTO 1, S. ABETO	ABORRECER
ABIERTO 2, S. ABRIR	aborrecible v . Aborrecer
ABIGAIL	abortivo v . Aborto
1770177170	1 m 0 m m 0

ABORTO

aborton v. Aborto

ABOTONAR

ABOTONARSE S. BOTON

abraçar v. Braço 4

ABRANTES

ABRASAR (BRASA)

ABRAZADERAS

ABRAZAR

ABREGO

ABREVAR

ABREVIADOR (BREVE)

ABREVIAR (BREVE)

abreviatura v. ABREVIAR

abridor v. Abrir

ABRIGAR

abrigarse v. Brega

ABRIGO

ABRIL

ABRIR

abrochar v. ABIERTO; BROCA

ABROIO

abroquelarse v. Broca,

BROQVEL

ABROTANO

absentio v. Assencios

ABVBILLA

ABVCASTA

ABVELO

abufado v. ABVHADO

ABVHADO 1

ABVHADO 2, s. BVHO

abultado v. вугто

ABVLTAR (BVLTO)

abundancia v. Abvndar

abundante v. ABVNDAR

ABVNDAR

ABVRAR

aburrido v. Aborrecer

ABVRRIR (ABORRECER)

abusion v. Abvso

ABVSO (VSVAL)

ABVTARDA

ABYDO

ACA

acabado v. Acabar

ACABAR (CABO)

AÇACAN (ÇAQVE)

AÇADA

ACADEMIA

academico v. ACADEMIA

açadon v. AÇADA

açadonado v. AÇADONERO

AÇADONERO

ACAECER

acaecimiento v. ACAECER

AÇAFATE

AÇAFRAN

AÇAFRANADO

açafranal v. AÇAFRANADO

AÇAGAYA

ACANELAR (CANAL 2)

açarandado v. ÇARANDA

acarava v. Cabida

AÇARCON

acardenalado v. CARDENA

acariciador v. CARICIA

ACARICIAR (CARICIA)

ACARREAR

acarreo v. Acarrear

acarreto v. ACARREAR

ACASO

acatamiento v. ACATAR

ACATAR (CATAR)

ACATARRARSE S. CATARRO

acaudalar v. CAVDAL

acaudillar v. CAVDILLO

açavache v. AZAVACHE

ACCESSION 8. ACERTAR

accidente v. ACCESSION

ACCION

ACECHANCAS

ACECHAR

ACECHE

ACEFALO

ACELGA

ACOGER (COGER) ACEMITE acendrado v. CENDRA ACOGERSE acensado, v. censo acogida v. Acogerse acens iado v. Acensvar acogimiento v. Acogerse ACENSVAR ACOGOTAR ACENTO ACOGVE AÇOGVEIO ACENTVAR ACEÑA açolar v. AÇVELA acepilladura v. ACEPILLAR; ACOLITO CEPILLO ACOMAR ACEPILLAR (CEPILLO) ACOMETER aceptacion v. ACETAR ACOMODAR acepto v. ACETAR ACOMODARSE (COMODO) acompañamiento v. ACOMPAÑAR ACEQVIA ACERCEN ACOMPAÑAR (COMPAÑON) acertado v. ACERTAR acomplixionado v, complexion ACONCHAR ACERTAR aconchavarse v. conchavanca ACETAR ACETRE 1 acondicionado v, condicion ACETRE 2, s. CETRERIA ACONTAR. ACEVADARSE (CEVADERO) ACONTECER acontecimiento v. ACONTECER ACEZAR ACOPADO (COPA) acezo v. ACEZAR AÇOR (TORÇVELO) ACIAL ACIBAR açorado v. Açor açorarse v. Acor ACICALAR ACORDAR (CVERDA)

ACIAL
ACIBAR
ACICALAR
ACICATES
ACIDENTAL
ACIDENTE
ACIDIA
acierto v. ACI

acierto v. Acertar Acion 1, s. Accion Acion 2, s. Acidia

ACIPRESTE

aclamar v. Clamor ACLARAR (CLARO) ,acoceador v. COCEAR

ACOCEAR

ACODAR (CODERA) acodiciarse v. CODICIAR

AÇOFAR

açofeifo v. AÇVFEIFO

ACORTAR
acosado v. ACOSAR
ACOSAR (COSO)

ACORRVCARSE

acostamiento v. Acortar

ACOSTAR

acostumbrado v. Acostymbrar

ACOSTVMBRAR

acotar v. cota 3; coto 1 Açote (çvrriaga) acoytar v. acogerse

acrecentamiento v. ACRECENTAR

ACRECENTAR

acre itar (se) v. credito

ACREEDOR

acriminar v. CRIMINAL ADAHALA ACRIMONIA ADALID acrivado v. ACRIVAR; CRIVA adamado v. DAMA ACRIVAR (CRIVA) adamar v. Amores ACVCAR ACVCENA ADARGA acuciar v. ACVCHILLAR ADARGARSE acuchilladizo v. ACVCHILLAR; ADARME (DRAMA) adarvarse v. Adarve CVCHILLO ACVCHILLAR ADARVE acuchillarse v. cychillo ADEFESIO ACVDA ADELANTADO adelantar v. ADELANTARSE ACVDIR ACVELA ADELANTARSE ACVESTAS ADELANTE açufaifa v. AÇVFEIFO ADELFA açufeifa v. AÇVFEIFO ADELGAZAR ACVFEIFO ADEMAN acufrador v. ALCREVITE; ADENTRO ENXVGAR ADEREÇAR acufrarse v. ALCREVITE adereço v. ADEREÇAR AÇVFRE (ALCREVITE) ADERENTE ·ACVLLA ADESORAS AÇVMBRE ADESTRAR (DIESTRA) adeudado v. ADEVDARSE ACVMVLAR ACVÑAR (CVÑA) ADEVDARSE adicion v. AÑADIDVRA ACVQVEICA acusacion v. Acvsar ADIVAS acusado v. Acvsar ADIVINAR ADIVINO (ADIVINAR) ACVSAR administracion v. ADMINISTRAR AÇVTEA (AXARAFE) administrador v. ADMINISTRAR acuytarse v. CVITA acymite v. ACEMITE ADMINISTRAR

acuytarse v. cvita
acymite v. acemite
achacar v. achaqve; asacar
achacoso v. achaqve
achaquiento v. achaqve;
axaqviento; enfermo

ACHICAR
achinelado v. CHINELA
ACHOCAR
ADAGIO

administrador v. ADMINISTR.
ADMINISTRAR
admirable v. ADMIRACION;
MIRAR
ADMIRACION
admirado v. ADMIRACION
admirar v. ADMIRACION
ADOBAR
ADOBE
adobio v. ADOBAR
ADOLECER (DOLERSE)

ADOPTAR

adoptivo v. ADOPTAR

ADORAR

ADORMECER

ADORMECERSE (DORMIR 2)

adormecido v. Adormecerse

ADORNIDERA ADORNADO ADORNAR

adorno v. Adornado adozenado v. Doze adquiridor v. Adqvirir

ADQVIRIR ADREDE ADVANA

aduanero v. Advana

ADVAR ADVFRE

adulacion v. ADVLADOR

ADVLADOR

aduladora v. ADVLADOR

ADVLAR ADVLÇAR ADVLTERAR

adulterino v. ADVLTERAR adulterio v. ADVLTERAR;

ESTVPRO ADVENEDIZO ADVERSARIO ADVERSIDAD

advertencia v. Advertira advertimiento v. Advertira

ADVERTIR

afabilidad v. AFABLE

AFABLE AFAN

afanador v. AFAN

AFEAR 1

AFEAR 2, s. FEALDAD afectacion v. AFECTAR

AFECTAR

AFECTO

AFEITE

afeminado 1, 2 aferrar v. Hierro afeytar v. Afeite aficion v. Aficionar

AFICIONAR AFILAR (FIL) AFINAR (FINO)

afincadamente v. AFINCAR

AFINCAR
AFIRMANTE
AFIRMAR (FIRMA)
afliction v. AFLIGIR

AFLIGIR

AFLOXAR (FLOXO)

AFORISMO AFORRAR

aforros v. Aforrar

AFRECHOS AFRENTA

afrentar v. FRENTE

afrentosa cosa v. AFRENTA

AFRICA AFRONTAR AFVCIAR

afuera v. FVERA

AFVFAR

agachado v. GACHO

AGALLA 1, 2
AGALLONES
AGANIPE
AGAPITO
AGAR
AGARICO

AGACHARSE

AGARRAR (GARABATO)
agarrochado v. GARROCHON

AGASAIAR

agasajar v. GASAJO

AGATA

AGATAS [(= a gatas) AGACHARSE]

agraz v. AGRAVIO

AGREDA

agricultor v. AGRICVLTVRA

AGATOCLES AGRICVLTVRA agavillarse v. GAVILLA AGRIMONIA AGAZAPARSE S. AFVFAR (GAZAagro v. CIDRO PERA) agrodulce v. DVLCE AGENO AGVA (NIEVE; VNGVENTO) aguaça v. AGVAR AGENVZ agestado v. Gesto aguaderas v. Agvar aguado v. AGVAR AGIION aguador v. AGVAR AGIL AGILIDAD V. AGIL aguaducho v. AGVAR AGINALDO AGVAIAQ agironado v. GIRONA AGVAITAR aguamanil v. AGVA AGIRONAR AGLAYADO aguamanos v. AGVA; FVENTE aglavarse v. AGLAYADO aguamiel v. AGVA AGLAYO (AGLAYADO) aguanieve v. AGVA aguanoso v. AGVAR AGNOCASTO AGVAPIE S. PIE 2 (AGVA; ESPRE-AGNVSDEI AGONALES MIDVRAS) AGONIA AGVAR agonizando v. AGONIA AGVARDAR (GVARDAR) AGORA aguas v. orina aguatocho v. AGVAR AGORAR agostadero v. Agosto aguaytador v. AGVAITAR aguaytamento v. AGVAITAR agostar v. Agosto agostizo v. Agosto aguçadera v. AGVÇAR AGOSTO AGVÇANIEVE AGOTAR (GOTA 1) AGVÇAR AGRACIADO (GRACIOSO) agudeza v. AGVDO agraciar v. AGRACIADO AGVDO agradable v. AGRADO; GRACIOSO AGVEDA agradar v. AGRADO AGVELO (ABVELO) agradecer v. AGRADO AGVERO agradecido v. GRACIOSO AGVGETA (CINTA) agugetero v. AGVGETA AGRADO AGRAMONTE AGVIA agrandar v. Grande 2 AGVIJA (GVIJA) agraviado v. AGRAVIO; GRAVE AGVILA AGVILA, PIEDRA DEL, S. PIEDRA AGRAVIO

BEZAR

AGVILEÑO

AGVISADO

AGVISADOS 8. GVISADO

aguja de pastor v. cigoñal

agujero v. AGVIA agujon v. AGIION

aguzanieve v. GITANO

AGVZAR

AHAXAR

AHECHADVRAS

AHECHAR

AHIJADO

AHILARSE (FILANDRIAS) ahincadamente v. AHINCO

ahincar v. AHINCO

AHINCO 1

AHINCO 2, S. HINCAR

AHINOJARSE 8. HINOJOS

ahirmar v. FIRMA ahitarse v. HITO

AHITO AHOGAR

AHORCAR

ahormar v. Horma ahorrado v. Horro

AHORRAR 1, 2

ahorrarse v. Horro

ahorro v. Horro

AHOYAR AHVCHAR

ahumada v. HVMO

AHVMAR (HVMO)

ai v. AY

AIO

AIOFRIN AIONIOLI

aislarse v. ISLA

ajo v. AIO; CORNVDO

ajustar v. ivsto 2

ajusticiar v. IVSTICIA;

IVSTICIERO

AL 1, 2

ALA

alabança v. Alabak

ALABAR

ALABARDA (PARTESANA) alabardero v. ALABARDA alabastrino v. ALABASTRO

ALABASTRO

ALACENA

ALACRAN (ESCORPION)

ALADARES 1

ALADARES 2, S. ALAZOR

ALAGON

ALAHEXOS

ALAMAR

ALAMARTEGA 8, ALMARTAGA

alambicarse v. Alambique

ALAMBIQVE ALAMBRE

alameda v. ALAMO

ALAMIN

ALAMO ALAMVD

ALANÇADA 1

ALANÇADA 2, S. LANÇADA

ALANÇAR

alancear v. Lançada

ALANCEARSE S. ALANÇADA 2

ALANIA

ALANO

ALARABES

alaraves v. GINETE

ALARCON

ALARCOS

ALARDE

ALARGAR

ALARGEZ

ALARIDO

ALARIFE

ALATON (LATON)

ALAVA

 \mathbf{ALAXV}

alaxur v. Alaxv

ALAZAN S. ALACRAN

ALAZOR 1, 8. ALACENA ALAZOR 2 ALBA 1, 2 ALBACEA (CABEÇA)

ALBACEA (CABEÇA)

ALBACETE

ALA

ALBACORA (BREVA)

ALBAHACA

albahega v. ALBAHACA

ALBAICIN ALBAIDA

ALBALA (ALVALA)

ALBANEGA ALBAÑAR ALBAÑIR ALBAQVIA ALBARCOQVE ALBARDA

albardero v. Albarda albardilla v. Albarda albardon v. Albarda

ALBARRACIN ALBARRADA ALBARRAN 1, 2 ALBARRANA ALBATOZA

ALBAYALDE (ALVAYALDE)

ALBEITAR

albeiteria v. Albeitar Alberca (Albergve) albergar v. Albergve albergero v. Albergve

ALBERGVE

albergueria v. ALBERGVE

ALBIGENSES
ALBIHARES
ALBOGE
ALBOGERO
ALBOHERA
ALBONDIGA
ALBOR (ALVA)
alborada v. ALBOR
ALBORBOLAS

alborear v. Albor

ALBORNIA ALBORNOZ

alboroçada v. Alboroço alboroçarse v. Alboroço

ALBOROÇO ALBOROQVE

alborotado v. Alboroto alborotador v. Alboroto

ALBOROTO
ALBRICIAS 1, 2
ALBVDECA (BADEA)

ALBVFERA ALBVMIER ALBVQVERQVE

ALBVR

albura v. coraçon

ALCAÇAR ALCAÇAVA ALCACEL

alçacuello v. ALÇAR 2 alçada v. ALÇAR 2

ALCADVZ 1

ALCADVZ 2, S. ARCADVZ ALCAHVETA (EMPLVMAR)

ALCAHVETE

alcahueteria v. ALCAHVETA

ALCALA

ALCALA DE HENARES alcaldada v. ALCALDE

ALCALDE

alcalde del rastro v. ARRASTRAR

ALCANA

alcançado v. GASTAR

ALCANÇAR

alcance v. ALCANÇAR
ALCANCIA (BVCHE)
alcanciaço v. ALCANCIA
ALCANDARA (CETRERIA;

FALCON 1)

ALCANFOR (CANFOR)

ALCANIZ

ALCANTARA ALCVNIA
ALCAPARRA ALCVZA
algaprima v. ALCAR 2 ALCVZCVZV

ALÇAR 1, 2 alchermes v. GRANA
ALCARAVAN alchimista v. FABVLA
ALCARAVEA ALDAVA

ALCARAZ 1, 2 aldavada v. ALDAVA alcarchofa alcarchofado v. ALCARCHOFA aldavon v. / IDAVA

ALCARRAZA ALDEA

 ALCARRIA
 aldeano v. ALDEA

 alçarse v. ALÇAR 2
 aldeguela v. BVRGO

 ALCARTAZ
 aldeorrio v. ALDEA

ALCATARA (ALQVITARA) ALDERETE
ALCATIFA ALDIZA
ALCAVDETE ALDONÇA

ALCAYDETE ALDONÇA
ALCAYDON alear v. ALA
ALCAYCERIA alebrarse v. LIEBRE

ALCAYDA S. ALFORIA ALECHE
ALCAYDE ALEDAÑO
ALCAYTA ALEGAR
ALCE ALEGORIA

ALCIDES alegorico v. ALEGORIZAR

ALCION ALEGORIZAR
ALCOBAZA ALEGRIA
ALCOCEL ALEGRON
ALCOCODEN ALELI

ALCOFA alelis v. ALHELI
ALCOHELA ALELVYA
ALCOHOL ALEMANIA

ALCOLEA ALENTAR 1, 2 (ALIENTO)

ALCOMENIAS (COMINO) ALERZO
ALCONCHEL ALESNA
ALCORAN ALEVE
ALCORÇA ALEVO

ALCORCONalevosia v. ALEVEALCORNOQVEalevoso v. ALEVE'alcorque v. corchoALEXANDRO

ALCOTAN ALEXAR (LEXOS)
ALCOVA ALEXO

ALCREVITE (AÇVFRE) ALFABEGA (ALBAHACA)

ALCVDIA ALFAGEME

algebrista v. ALGEBRA

ALGER

ALFAHAR algeza v. Alger alfaharero v. Alfahar ALGEZIRA ALFALFA (MIELGA) ALGIBE ALGO (FIDALGO) ALFAMAR ALFANEQUE ALGODON ALFANGE ALGORFA ALGVAQVIDA (ALCAHVETA; ALFAQVEQVE ALCREVITE) ALFAQVES ALFARDA ALGVAZIL ALFARGE ALGVNO ALFARO alhabega v. ALBAHACA ALHACENA (ALANIA) alfaxeme v. Alfageme ALFAXOR ALHAIA alfaxur v. Alaxy ALHAMA ALFAYATE ALHAMAR ALFENIQUE ALHAMBRA alfeñique v. Alfenique ALHAMEL ALFERECIA ALHANDAQVE ALFEREZ ALHANIA ALHARACA ALFILEL alharaquiento v. ALHARACA ALFOCIGO alheilil v. ALHELI ALFOLI ALHELGA ALFOMBRA ALFONSINA ALHELI ALFONSO 1, 2 ALHENA alhenarse v. ALHENA ALFORIA alforja v. ALFORIA; CORCOBA ALHEÑA ALHERCE (cf. ALERZO) ALGALIA algamarina v. CHINCHE alhocigo v. ALFOCIGO ALGAMIA S. ALJAMA ALHOLI ALGARA ALHOLVAS ALGARADA (ALGAZARA) ALHOMBRA ALGARAVIA ALHONDIGA ALGARBE ALHORZA ALGARES ALHOZIGO ALGARROBA ALHVZEMA algarve v. ALGARBE ALIADOS ALGAVA ALIAFERIA ALGAZARA aliança v. ALIADOS ALGEBRA ALICANTE

ALICATES

ALICERES

11

ALICOTA ALMAGRO
ALIENTO ALMAIAL
ALIFAFE ALMAGVER
aliger v. GVARNECER ALMAIZAR
aligerar v. LIGERO ALMALAFA 1, 2
ALIJARES 1, 2
ALMANAOVE

ALMALAFA 1
ALIJARES 1, 2
ALMANAQVE
ALIMAÑA (ANIMAL)
ALMANÇOR
ALIMARA
ALIMENTO
ALMARIALES
ALIMPIAR
ALIMPIAR
ALIMARIO
ALMARIALES

ALIÑAR almarraja v. ALMARRAIA

aliño v. Aliñar Almartaga

aliñoso v. Aliñar almartega v. Alamartega

ALIONIOLI ALMAZAN
ALISAR ALMAZEN

ALISTAR almaziga v. BARNIZ

alistarse v. LISTA ALMEA
ALIVBA ALMEIA
ALIVBAI ROTA ALMEIDA
aliviar v. ALIVIO ALMENA

ALIVIO almenar v. ALMENARA

ALIZAR (ALICERES)

ALMENDRA
ALJAMA

ALMENDRA
almendrada v. ALMENDRA

aljamia v. ALGAMIA almendro v. ALMENDRA

ALJAVA almendruco v. ALLOZA ;ALMENDRA

aljofarado v. A JOFAR ALMERIA
ALJOFAR ALMETE
aljonjoli (alionioli) v. ALEGRIA ALMETOLI

ALMA 1 ALMEZ (TORRE DE LONDONES)

ALMAÇAN ALMIDON
ALMACIGA ALMILLA
ALMADEN 1 ALMIRAN

ALMADEN 1 ALMIRANTE (MARQVESOTA)
ALMADEN 2, 8. ALMAZEN ALMIREZ

ALMADENA S. ALMADEN 2
, almadrahe v. ALMANAQVE
ALMADRAQVE
ALMADRAQVE
ALMADRAVA (ATVN)
ALMIZCLE

ALMAGREalmizcleña v. MVSCOALMAGESTOalmizcleño v. MOSCATEL

ALMIZCLERA alojamiento v. ALOJAR
ALMOCADEN ALOJAR

ALMOCREVE ALON

ALM

ALMODOVAR ALONDRA (COGVXADA)

ALMODROTE (SALMOREJO) ALONGARSE

ALMOFALA alongero v. CARDO
ALMOFAR ALONIOLI

ALMOFIA (AXVFAYNA) ALONSO
ALMOFREX ALOQVE
ALMOGAVARES ALORA

ALMOGERA ALOXA (NIEVE)
ALMOHACEN ALOXAMIENTO

ALMOHADA aloxar v. ALOXAMIENTO almohadilla v. ALMOHADA alpargatazo v. ALPARGATE ALMOHAZA ALPARGATE (ESPARTEÑA)

ALMOIAVANA alpargatero v. ALPARGATE
ALMONAZI ALPECHIN
ALMONEDA ALPES

almorabide v. Morabito Alpicoces
Almoradvx Alpiste
Almoravides Alpvxarras
Almorçar Algveria
Almorox Algverme
Almorrana Algverqve

almotacen v. obispo Algvicel

ALMOTAZEN alquicer v. ALQVICEL ALMOXARIFE ALQVILAR

ALMVD (FANEGA) ALQVILE almudada v. ALMVD; FANEGA ALQVIMIA

almudi v. almvd Alqvitara (distilatorio)

ALMVEDANO ALQVITIRA
ALMVERÇO 1 ALQVITRAN
ALMVERÇO 2, 8. ALMVEDANO ALQVIVICIO

ALMVÑECAR alsene v. ENSENSIOS alna v. ANA 2 alsenso v. ENSENSIOS ALNADO ALTA (ESCVELA) ALTANERIA

ALNAFE ALTANERIA
ALOBADADO ALTANERO
alobado v. Lobádo ALTAR

ALOCADO alteracion v. ALTERAR

ALOGADOR ALTERAR

ALOGAR ALTERCACION (ALTERCAR)

13 ALTAMBALTERCAR allozar v. Alloza ALTEZA AMA altibaxo v. ALTO; ABAXAR; AMABLE amada v. Amores BAXAR altiveza v. ALTIVO amador v. Amores ALTIVO AMADRIADES ALTO (FONDO) AMAESTRAR. altogano v. TOÇAL; ALTOZANO AMAGAR ALTOZANO amago v. AMAGAR ALTRAMVZ AMAINAR ALVDIR AMALTHEA AMAMANTAR ALVMBRAR amancebada v. AMANCEBADO ALVMBRE ALVNADO AMANCEBADO ALVQVETE 1 (ALCAHVETA) amancebamiento v, AMANCE-ALVQVETE 2, s. ALVAR BADO alusion v. ALVDIR amancillar v. MANCILLA ALVZEMA (ESPLIEGO) AMANECER ALVZINAR AMANSAR amante v. AMORES ALVA alvacea v. ALBACEA; TESTA-AMAÑARSE MENTO AMAPQLA ALVALA (REGISTRAR) AMAR ALVAR AMARANTO Alvar v. ALVARO amargaleja v. AMARGO ALVARAZOS AMARGO Alvarez v. ALVARO amargura v. AMARGO ALVARO AMARILLIS ALVARQVOQVE AMARILLO ALVAYALDE amarrar v. AMARRAS AMARRAS ALVEDRIO ALVERCHIGO AMASSAR ALVERGVE AMATISTA ALVOR AMAYA ALLANAR (LLANO) amazagatos v. GATEAR allegado v. ALLEGAR amazolado v.DESMAZOLADO AMAZONAS

allegador v. Allegar
, Allegar
Allende
allosa v. Almendra; Alloza

ALLOZA (HIZNALLOZ; IERVSALEM) AMBICION (AMBITO)

AMBIDEXTRO

amblador v. VEREDA

AMBOS

AMBAR

AMBROLLA AMBROSIA AMBROSIO AMBROZ AMEDRENTAR

AMEN AMENAZAR

amenguado v. Amenguar

 $\mathbf{AMENGVAR}$

amenidad v. Ameno

AMENTO

AMESNADORES

amesnar v. Amesnadores

amiento v. AMENTO amigado v. AMORES amigarse v. AMORES AMILANARSE (MILANO)

AMMON AMO

amodorrido v. Modorro

AMOHINARSE

amojonarse v. Mojonera

AMOLAR

AMOLLENTAR (MOLLENTAR)

AMONESTACIONES

amonestado v. Amonestaciones

AMONESTAR

amontar v. Monton AMONTONAR (MONTON)

AMOR (AMAR)
AMORES (AMOR)

amoricones v. Amores amorio v. Amores

AMORTAJAR (MORTAJA)
AMORTECERSE (DORMIR 2;

MORTVORIO)
AMORTIGVAR

amortizacion v. Amortizar

AMORTIZAR AMOSCADOR

amoscar v. Amoscador

amostazado v. Amostazarse

AMOSTAZARSE 1

AMOSTAZARSE 2, 8. MOSTAZA amotinado v. Amotinarse;

MOTIN

AMOTINARSE (MOTIN)

AMPARAR
AMPHIBIOS
AMPHIBOLOGIA
AMPHITEATRO
AMPOLLA

ampollado v. Ampolla ampollità v. Ampolla ampollità v. Ampolla ampudias v. Ampvrias

AMPVRIAS AMVRATE

AMVSGAR (MVSGO)

ANA 1

ANA 2, 8. ANNA ANABATISTAS

ANACALA

anacalo v. Anacala anacardina v. Cardo

ANACHARSIS ANACHORITA ANADE

ANADEAR ANADINO ANADON ANAFALLA ANAGOGIA ANALES

ANAPELO (BERROS)
ANAQVEL (POYO)

ANASTASIO ANATA

anatematizar v. ANATHEMA

ANATHEMA ANATISTAS ANATOLIA

ANATOMIA

anatomista v. Anatomia

ANAXARCHO

ANCA (NALGAS)

ancianidad v. ANCIANO

ANCIANO ANCORA ANCVELO

ancharia v. LARGO anchicorta v. ANCHO

ANCHO (LARGO)

ANCHOVA ANDABATES

andador v. Andar andadura v. Andar

ANDALVCIA ANDAMIO

andante v. ANDAMIO

ANDAR

andas v. ANDAR anden v. ANDAMIO andora v. ANDAR

ANDRAJO

andrajoso v. ANDRAJO

ANDRES ANDROGENO

androgyno v. ANDROGENO;

ERMAPHRODITA

ANDVARES

andurriales v. ANDAMIO

ANDVXAR ANEGARSE

anexidad v. ANEXO anexion v. ANEXO

ANEXO

ANGARILLAS

ANGEL

Angela v. ANGEL 'angelical v. ANGEL angelotes v. ANGEL

ANGEO ANGOSTO

angostura v. ANGOSTO

ANGVILLA

anguillazo v. ANGVILLA

ANGVLAR ANGVLO ANGVLOS ANGVSTIA ANHELAR

anhelito v. ANHELAR anidar v. NIDO

ANILLO ANIMA ANIMAL

animar v. ANIMAL

ANIME

ANIMO (ANIMAL) animoso v. ANIMAL ANIÑADO (NIÑO)

ANIS

ANIVERSARIO

ANNA

annata v. ANATA ANOCHECER (NOCHE)

ANOMALO ANOMIOS ANORIA ANOTOMIA ANSAR

ansaron v. Ansar

ANSIA

ansioso v, ANSIA

ANTAÑO ANTE

ANTECHRISTO ANTELACION ANTEMANO ANTENA

ANTENADO (ALNADO; PADRAS-

TRO)
ANTE OMNIA
ANTEPONER
ANTEPVERTA
ANTEQVERA

ANTERIOR
ANTES
ANTESIGNANO
ANTICIPAR
ANTIDOTO
ANTIER
ANTIFAZ (FAZ)

ANTIFAZ (FAZ) ANTIFONA

antigualla v. Antigvo antiguedad v. Antigvo

ANTIGVO

antipatia v. SIMPATIA antiquarios v. ANTIGVO antojadizo v. ANTOJOS

ANTOJO ANTOJOS

ANTORCHA (ENTORCHA) ANTROPOFAGO

ANTROPOMORFITAS

ANTRVEJO

antruydo v. ANTRVEJO

ANTVVIAR

antuvion v. Antuviar anublarse v. NVBLO anunciacion v. Anviciar

ANVNCIAR 1

anunciar 2, s. Nunciar anuncio v. Anunciar añacea (cf. Añazeas)

añada v. Anata

añadido v. Añadidvra

AÑADIDVRA AÑADIR AÑAFIL AÑAGAZA AÑAL AÑAZEAS

AÑAZMES (AXORCAS) añejarse v. AÑEJO

AÑEJO AÑINO AÑIR AÑO (AÑOVEZ)

AÑOJO AÑOVEZ AÑVBLAR

añublo v. Añvblar Añvdar (ñvdo)

AOCAR AOJAR 1

AOJAR 2, S. OJEAR

AOSADAS APACENTAR

apacibilidad v. Apacible Apacible (Aplacer)

APACIGVAR

APADRINAR (PADRINO)

APAGAR APALABRAR APALEAR APAÑĀR

APAR (= a par) s. PARAPARADOR (VASAR)

APARAR
APARATO
APARCERIA

aparcero v. APARCERIA

APARECER APAREIAR

aparejador v. APAREIAR aparejo v. APAREIAR aparente v. APARENCIA

APARENCIA APARTADIJOS

apartado v. Apartar apartador v. Apartar

APARTAR APARTARSE

apasionado v. Apassionarse Apassionarse (passion 2)

APEARSE
APECHVGAR 1

APECHVGAR 2, s. PECHVGVERA

APEDREAR APEGARSE

apelacion v. APELAR

APELAR
APELDAR
APELDE
APELMAZAR
APELLIDAR

apellido v. APELLIDAR

APENAS APEONAR

apercibido v. APERCIBIR apercibimiento v. APERCIBIR

APERCIBIR APERO

aperrocharse v. Perroquia Apersonado v. Persona

APESGAR

apestado v. Peste apestarse v. Peste

APETECER

apetecible v. APETITOSO apetible v. APETITOSO

APETITO APETITOSO

apiadarse v. PIEDAD

APILAR APIO

apitonado v. APITONARSE

APITONARSE
APLACAR
APLACER
APLAVSO
APLICAR
APLOMAR
APOCA (CARTA)

APOCALYPSIS

apocamiento v. APOCAR

APOCAR
APOCIMA
APOCRIFO
APODO

APOLILLARSE (POLILLA)

APOLOGIA
APOLOGO
APOPLEXIA
APORCAR
APORREAR
APORTAR

aposentador v. Aposentar

APOSENTAR APOSENTO APOSTAR

apostasia v. Apostata

APOSTATA APOSTATAR APOSTEMA APOSTOL

apostolico v. Apostol apostolico v. Apostol apostolo v. Dimisorias

APOSTROFE

apostura v. APVESTO

APOTHEGMA APOYAR (POYO)

apreciado v. APRECIAR apreciador v. APRECIAR APRECIAR (PRECIAR)

APREHENDER

apremiaduras v. Apremiar Apremiar (premiado)

APRENDER APRESTAR

apretadera v. APRETAR apretador v. APRETAR apretamiento v. APRETAR apretantes v. APRETAR apreton v. APRETAR apretura v. APRETAR

APRIESSA

aprieto v. APRETAR

APRISCO APRISIONAR APROBAR APROPIAR

aprovar v. PROVAR

aprovechado v. APROVECHAR aprovechamiento v. APROVE-

CHAR

APROVECHAR (PROVECHO)

APVESTA (APOSTAR)

APVESTO

apuntador v. Apvntamiento

APVNTALAR

APVNTAMIENTO

APVNTAR APVÑEAR APVRAR

AQVEDAR AQVEL

AQVENDE

aquesta v. AQVESTE

AQVESTE

aquesto v. Aqveste Aqvexar (qvexa) Aquilo v. Borreas

AQVILON AQVILLA ABA

ARABACA

arabes v. Arabia

ARABIA

arabigo v. Arabia

ARADOR
ARAGAN
ARAGON
ARAGONES

ARAMBEL

ARAMBRE (ALAMBRE)

ARANCEL
ARANDA
ARANDELA
ARANJVEZ
ARAÑA 1, 2

arañarse v. ARAÑO

arañiego v. araña 2

ARAÑO

arañuelo v. Araña 2

ARAR 1, S. ARADO

ARAR 2
ARAVCANA

arbeja v. ARVEIA arbejones v. ARVEIA ARBITRIO (ALVEDRIO)

 ${\tt ARBOL}$

arboleda v. ARBOL

ARBOLLON ARCA 1

ARCA 2, s. ARQVILLA

arcabuceria v. ARCABVZERO

ARCABVZ

arcabuzazo v. Arcabyzero

ARCABVZERO
ARCADVZ
ARCANGEL
ARCAS (ARCA 2)
Arcas v. ARCAS
arcaz v. ARCA 1

arcedianato v. ARCEDIANO arcedianazgo v. ARCEDIANO

ARCEDIANO ARCILLA ARCO ARCOBISPO

arçon v. Arzones arcos v. Arco

ARCHERO S. ARQVERO

ARCHETYPO

archibanco v. ARQVILLA ARCHIMANDRITA (MANDRA)

ARCHIPIELAGO
ARCHITECTO
ARCHITRICLINIOS
archivista v. ARQVILLA
archivo v. ARQVILLA

ARDER 1, 2 ardid v. ARDER 1

ardiente v. ARDER 1 ardor v. ARDER 1.

ARDVO ARENA ARENALES

arencado, -a v. SARDINA

ARENGA ARENILLAS

arenisco v. Arenales Arengves (Sardina)

AREOPAGITAS AREOPAGO ARESTIN ARETINO ARETVSA AREVALO

AREZIFE S. ARRESTO

ARFIL (ALFERECIA; ELEFANTE)

ARGADILLO

argadixo v. Argadillo argamandixo v. Argadillo Argamasa (Maçacote) argamasilla v. Argamasa

ARGANAS ARGANDA ARGANO ARGEL ARGES

Argete v. ARGES

ARGILITA
ARGO
ARGOS
ARGVIR
ARGVLLOSO

argumento v. ARGVIR arguyente v. ARGVIR ariete v. CARNERO 2

ARILLOS ARISCO

arismetica v. ARITHMETICA

ARISTA

ARISTOCRATIA

ARITHMETICA

ARIZA ARJONA

arlequin v. Arneqvin 1

ARLO

arma v. ARMAR

armadixo v. ARGADILLO armadura v. ARMAR

ARMAR

armario v. Almario armatoste v. Armar

ARMELLA

armero v. ARMAR

armilla v. ALMILLA; ARMELLA

ARMIÑO
ARMONIACO
ARMVELLES

ARNEQVIN 1, S. ARIZA

ARNEQVIN 2

aro v. GVMILLO aronia v. AZEROLA arquear v. ARCO ARQVERO (ARQVILLA) arqueta v. ARQVILLA arqueton v. ARQVILLA

ARQVILLA

arquitecto v. LABRAR

ARRAAX ARRABAL

arrabon v. Arras

ARRACADAS 1, 8. ARNEQVIN 2 ARRACADAS 2, 8. ARRAS

ARRAEZ

arrahan v. ARRAYAN

arramblado v, bibarrambla;

RAMBLA

ARRANCAR (TRANCO)
ARRAPIEÇOS (CABEZON)
arraque v. ALQVERQVE
arraquibe v. ARRAQVIVE

ARRAQVIVE
ARRAS (ARRACADAS 2)
ARRASAR (RASO 2)
ARRASTRAR
ARRASTRAR
ARRAXAQVE 1, 8. ARRAYAN

ARRAXAQVE 1, 8. ARRAYAN
ARRAXAQVE 2, 8. ARRASTRAR
ARRAYAN

ARRAYAN ARRAYGAR

arraygarse v. RAYZES

ARRAZIFE

arreado v. Arrear

ARREAR

ARREBAÑAR (REBAÑO) arrebatador v. ARREBATAR arrebatamiento v. ARREBATAR

ARREBATAR

arreboçarse v. REBOCIÑO

ARREBOLA

arrebolada v. Arrebola arrebolarse v. Arrebola arrecafes v. Arrezafes

arreciar v. RECIO

arredropelo v. Arredrar

ARREGAÇAR 8. REGAÇO

ARREGAZAR ARRELDE

ARRELLANARSE ARREMANGAR ARREMETER

arremetida v. Arremeter arrendador v. Arrendar arrendajo v. Arrendar

ARRENDAR

arreo v. Arrear

arrepentida v. Arrepentirse arrepentimiento v. Arrepen-

TIRSE

ARREPENTIRSE ARRESTAR ARRESTO ARREZAFES ARRIAGA

Arriano v. Arrio

ARRIATES ARRIBA

arribar v. Arriba Arrimar (RIMA) arrimo v. Arrimar

arrinconado v. Arrinconarse Arrinconarse (rincon;

ANGVLO)

ARRIO

arriogoriaga v. Arrivgvrriaga

ARRISCAR

arriscarse v. risco

ARRITRANCA
ARRIVGVRRIAGA
ARRIZAFA
ARROBA

ARROBAMIENTO ARROBARSE

arrobero v. ARROBA arrocinado v. ROCIN ARRODILLAR

ARRODILLAR

arrodillarse v. RODILLA

ARROGANCIA

arrogante v. ARROGANCIA arrojadizo v. ARROJARSE

ARROJAR ARROJARSE ARROLLAR

arrompido v. ROMPER

ARROMPIDOS

ARROPARSE (ROPA)

ARROPE ARROPEAS ARROSTRAR ARROYO

ARRVFALDADO (RVFIANESCA)

ARRVGA

arrugado v. RVGA

arrugar v . Arrv	

ARRVINAR

ARRVLLAR

ARRVMACO

arruynado v. ARRVINAR

ARSENAL

ARSENICO ARSENIO

ARTE ARTEMISA

ARTERIA

ARTERO 1, s. ARTE
ARTERO 2, s. ARTERIA
artesano v. ARTERO 1

ARTESO

ARTESONES

ARTEXO ARTIAGA

articular v. ARTICVLO

ARTICVLO

artifice v. ARTIFICIO artificial v. ARTIMAÑA

ARTIFICIO

artificioso v. ARTIFICIO

ARTILLERIA

ARTILLERO (ARTILLERIA)

ARTIMAÑA
artista v. ARTE

ARVÃO ARVAS ARVEIA

arveja v. GARBANÇO

ARXONA

ARZILLA

ARZOLLA (ALLOZA; ALMENDRA)

ARZVA

AS (CANICVLA)

ASA

ASABIENDAS

ASACAR

asaco v. ASACAR asadura v. CORADA

ASALTO

ASAR (CANICVLA; cf. ASSAR)

ASARABACAR ASASINO ASAZ

ASBERTO

asciada v. AÇADA asciadon v. AÇADA

ASCVA

asear v. ASEO
aselga v. ACELGA
asellus v. MERLVZA
asenderado v. SENDA

ASEO

asesar v. seso

ASIAL

asicla v. ACELGA

ASIDERO

asiento v. Aljofar asilla v. Asą asion v. Acion Asir 1, s. Asberto

ASIR 2
ASMA

asmatico v. ASMA ASNO (IVMENTO)

ASPA

aspalato v. Alargez

aspar v. ASPA aspaviento v. ASPA

ASPECTO

aspereza v. ASPERO

ASPERO ASPIDE

aspirar v. Espiritval asquerosito v. Asco Asoveroso (Asco)

ASSADVRA

assadurilla v. ASSADVRA

ASS ASSAETADO ASTORGA ASSALTEAR ASTROLABIO ASSAR ASTROLOGIA ASSAZ ASTROLOGO assechanza v. Assechar ASTRONOMIA astroso (desastrado) ASSECHAR ASSEGVRAR ASTVCIA ASSENCIOS ASTVRIAS ASSENDEREAR asturion v. HACA assensios v, ENSENSIOS astuto v. ASTVCIA assentadera v. NALGAS; SIESO ASYLO assentador v. ASSENTAR ATABAL ASSENTAR (FLOREO) atabalejo v. Corybantes atabalillo v. Atambor ASSENTIR ASSERAR S. ASSERRAR ATACAR asserradero v. Asserrar ATAHARRE asserrador v. Asserbar ATAHONA asserradura v. Asserrar ATAJAR atajo v. ATAXARSE ASSERRAR ASSESOR ATALAR assessoria v. Assesor ATALAYA ASSESTAR ATALAYA DE SERTORIO ATALVINA ASST assiento v. ASSENTAR ATAMBOR (ATABAL) ASSIGNAR atamento v. ATAR assistente v, assistir ATANASIO ASSISTIR ATANCAR assolamiento v. Assolar ATANOR ASSOLAR ATANQVIA assomada v. Assomar ATAÑER ASSOMAR ATAPAR assombramiento v. Assombrar atapiernas v. CENOGIL; ASSOMBRAR AHINOJARSE

assomo v. Assomar

assonada v. ASSONAR ASSONAR

ASSVSTAR ASTA

astil v. ASTA

ASTILLA

astillera v. ASTA astillero v. Alançarse ATASCAR (TASCOS) ATAVD

ATARAZANA atarfe v. TAMARIZ

ATAR

ataugia v. EMBLEMA

ataraçana v. ARSENAL

ATARANTADO (TARANTVLA)

ATAUXIA

ATAVIAR

ATAXARSE S. ATAJAR

ATAYFOR

ataz v. Destazar

ATEMORIZAR

atenaçar v. TENAÇAS

ATENAS

atencion v. ATENTO ATENDER (ATENTO)

ateniense v. Atenas

atentado v. ATENTAR

ATENTAR

ATENTO

atericiado v. TIRICIA

ATERIDO ATERRAR

ATESORAR

ATESTAR

atheista v. ATHEO

ATHEO ATHLETA

ATIENTO ATINAR ATINCAR

ATIZAR

atlantes v. CAN; CARIATIDES

ATLANTICO ATLAS ATOCHA

atolladero v. ATOLLAR

ATOLLAR

ATOMO (TOMAR)
ATONITO
ATONTADO

ATORAR

ATORMENTAR

atortugar v. GALAPAGO

ATORTVXAR

ATOSIGAR (TOSIGO)

ATRAER

atrahimiento v. ATRAER

atraillar v. TRAILLA

ATRANCAR ATRAS ATRAVESAR

ZI I IUI V EDILIU

atravessar v. Atravesar

ATRAYLLAR

ATREGVADO (TREGVAS) atrevença v. ATREVIDO atrevencia v. ATREVIDO

ATREVIDO

atrevimiento v. ATREVIDO

ATRIACA

atriago v. AZIAGO

ATRIBVIR ATRIBVLADO ATRIBVLAR

atributo v. Atribvir

ATRIL

atrio v. ATRIL

atronado v. ATRONAR

ATRONAR

ATROPELLAR (TROPEL)

 $\begin{array}{c} {\rm ATROPOS} \\ {\rm ATROZ} \end{array}$

atufado v. ATVFARSE; TVFO

ATVFARSE ATVN ATVRDIR

ATVSAR AVDACIA

audaz v. AVDACIA

AVDIENCIA AVDITOR AVGVSTA AVGVSTINO

AVLA

aulico v. AVLA AVLLADOR AVLLAR

aumentar v. AVMENTO

AVMENTO

AVN

AVN NO AVENTAJARSE
AVNA
AVNADOS AVENTVRA
AVNARSE (VNO) AVER

auriflamen v. flor averiguacion v. averigvado

AVERIGVADO

AVRORA AVERIGVAD ausencia v. AVSENTARSE AVERIGVAR AVSENTARSE AVERO AVEROES austral v. AVSTRO AVEZES

AVSTRO AVEZINDADO
AVTAN AVEZINDARSE 8. VEZINDAD

AVTENTICAR AVIA

AVTENTICO AVIAR (VIAJE)
AVTILLO AVICENA
AVTO AVIESO
AVITO DE FEE AVILA
AVTOR AVILTAR

AVTORIDAD 1, 2 AVION
AVTORIZAR AVIS
avad v. Avaos AVISAR

AVANÇAR aviso v. AVISAR

AVANÇO (AVANÇAR)

AVANGVARDIA

AVOLEZA

AVAOS

AVACETE)

AVACE AVA

AVARIENTO AXAQVIENTO
AVARO (AVARIENTO) AXARABE
AVARRAZ AXARAFE

AVE AXARQVIA
AVECHVCHO AXEDREA

AVELLANA AXEDREZ (ESCAQVE)

avellanado v. avellano axenvz avellaneda v. avellano axenxios

AVELLANO axenxo v. ASSENCIOS

AVENA AXIOMAS AVENADO AXONIÑO

AVENENCIA

AVENENCIA

AVENENCIA

AVENENCIA

AVENENCIA

AVENENCIA

avenirse v. AVENENCIA AXVFAYNA

AVENTAJADO S. VENTAJA 1 AY

AYARQVIA AYER AYNA AYNAS *AYO AYRADO

AYRARSE 8. IRA

AYRE
AYRONES
AYSLARSE
AYTONA

AYVDA (CRISTEL; MELECINA)

AYVDAR

ayunar v. Ayvno

AYVNO

ayuntamiento v. AYVNTAR

AYVNTAR (ALIADOS)

AYVSO AZAGAYA AZAHAR

AZAR (CANICVLA)

AZARCON AZAVACHE AZCONA AZEBO

AZEBVCHE AZECA

AZECALAR

azechar v. ASSECHAR

AZECHE

azedera v. AZEDO AZEDIA (AZEDO) Azedia v. AZEDIA

AZELGA

AZEMILA (MVLO)
azemilero v. AZEMILA
azemilon v. AZEMILA

azemite v. ACEMITE; CENCEÑO

AZEÑA AZERADO AZERICO AZERO AZEROLA

AZEYTE

azeytera v. ALCVZA; AZEYTVNA

AZEYTVNA

azeytuno v. AZEYTVNA

AZIAGO AZIAL AZIBAR AZICATE AZIDIA

AZIMO (LEVADVRA) azimos v, ACEMITE

AZITARA AZOFAR AZOGE

azoguejo v. AÇOGVEIO

AZVDA azuela v. HACHA

azuela v. HACHA

AZVLAQVE AZVLEJOS

azutea v. TERRADO

В

В

BABA (INFANTE; LANDRECILLA)

BABANCA BABATELES babazas v. BABA

BABERA BABIA

babieca v. BAMBARRIA

BABIECA BABILONIA

babsan v. BAVSAN baça v. BASA

BAÇA 1

BAÇA 2, S. BACILAR

BACCO 1, 2

26

BACIA

baciar v. Bacinada Bacilar (Bacylo) bacin v. Servir

BACINADA BAÇO BACVLO

bachanalia v. BACCO

BACHILLER .

bachillerear v. BACHILLER bachilleria v. BACHILLER

BADA

badagillo v. BADAJO badajada v. BADAJO

BADAJOZ BADAL BADANA

BADEA (ALBVDECA)

BADIL

badilazo v. BADIL BADVLAQVE

BAEZA BAGAGE

bagamundo v. VAGAR

BAGASA BAGASTA

bagio v. ABAXAR

BAHARI

bahear v, вано

BAHO BALA

BALADI baladon v. BALDA

BALADRON BALANÇA

BALANCIN (ABALANÇARSE)

BALAR
BALAX 1, 2
BALBASTRO
BALBOA

BALCON (FALCON 2)

BALDA

balde (de) v. BALDA baldio v. BALDA

BALDON
BALDONADA
BALDRES
BALEARES
balido v, BALAR

balilia v. BALIXA balio v. BAYLIO

BALIXA BALNADV BALON

balona v. Balon

BALOTA
BALSAIN
BALSAMO
BALVARTE
BALVMBA
BALVASTRO
BALLENA
BALLESTA
BALLESTERO
BALLESTILLA

bamba v. Bambarria

вамва 1, 2

BAMBALEAR (BAYBEN)

BAMBARRIA BAMBOLEAR BANCA 1

BANCA 2, S. BANCOS bancario v. BANCO BANCO (BANCA) BANCOS DE FLANDES bandido v. BANDO

BANDO

bandolero v. BANDO BANDVRRIA (PANDVRRIA) banqueta v. BANCA 1

BANQVETE BANQVETEAR banquillo v. Banca 1 bañarse v. Baño

BAÑO BAPTISMO BAPTISTA

baptisterio v. BAPTIZAR

BAPTIZAR BARAHA BARAHONA BARAHVSTE BARAJA

barajar v. baraja

BARAJAS

baratar v. BARATO barateria v. BARATO

BARATIJAS

baratilla v. BARATO baratista v. BARATO

BARATO

baraton v. Barato Barba 1, 2, 3, 4

BARBACANA BARBADA BARBARIA BARBARISMO BARBARO

BARBASCO & BARTOLOMICO

BARBECHAR BARBECHO BARBICACHO

barbiponiente v. BARBICACHO

BARBO (BARBA 1)

BARCA BARCEL BARCELONA BARDAXA BARITONO

BARJVLETA (BOLSA)

barlaventar v. BARLAVENTO

BARLAVENTO

BARNIZ (ENEBRO; GOMA)

BARON 1, 2

baronia v. BARON barquillo v. OBLEA

BARRA BARRACAS BARRACO BARRACHEL BARRAGAN

barragana v. Barragan barraganada v. Barragan

BARRANCO

barredero v. Barrer barredura v. Barrer

BARRENA

barrenado v. Barrena barrendero v. Barren

BARREÑA

barreñon v. Barreña

BARRER BARRERA

BARRIGA (ARCA 2; VIENTRE) barrigudo v. BARRIGA

BARRIL

barrilla v. BARRA

BARRIO

barrisco v. BARRER barrito v. ELEFANTE

BARRO 1, 2

barroso v. barro 2

BARROTE

BARRVECO (ALJOFAR)

BARRVNTAR

Bartol v. Bartolomico Bartolo v. Bartolomico

BARTOLOME BARTOLOMICO

BASA BASILICA BASILICON

BASILISCO (GVEVO) bassa v. BAXA BASSALLO

BASTA 1, 2

bastage v. GANAPAN BAXEL bastaje v. basta 2 baxeza v. ABAXAR; BAXAR bastante v. Basta 1 BAXILLA bastarda v. BASTARDO baxio v. BAXAR bastardia v. BASTARDO baxo v. ABAXAR; BAXAR; FONDO BASTARDO BAYA bastecer v. Basto BAYAS BASTIDA BAYBEN BASTIDOR BAYLAR (BAYLE; LOCVRA) bastimento v, basto bastion v. Bestion 1 BAYLIO BASTO (BASTON 3) BAYNA BASTON 1, 2, 3 (BASTA 2) BAYO 1, S. BAYAS BAYO 2 BASTOS batacazo v. Batir BAYOCCO BATALLA BAYONA bayuleta v. BARJVLETA BATALLAR BATALLON BAZA bazin v. BACIA BATAN batanero v. BATAN bazinica v. BACIA bazinico v. BACIA BATEL bazinilla v. BACIA BATERIA (BATIR) batesano v. BAÇA BAZO BATICVLO BEATA BEATERIO BATIDERO BATIENTE (BATIR) beatifico v. BEATITVD BATIHOJA BEATILLA batillo v. Brasa BEATITVD BATIR 1, 2 (BATAN) BEATO batis v. RAYA 2 BEBEDIZOS batos v. RAYA 2 BEBER 1, 2 BATTOLOGIA BEBLADA BAVL (EMBAVLAR) beborretear v. BEBER 2 BAVSAN (PAVSAN) bebraje v. BREVAJE bausana v. BAVSAN bausanas v. Adarve becoquin v. BECA bautismo v. Baptismo BEFA BAVA венемотн bavera v. BAVA BEHETRIA BAXA (ALTA; ESCVELA)

BEJA

BEJAR

BELDAD

baxada v. ABAXAR; BAXAR

BAXAR

BELFO (LABEONES) beliaco v. BELIAL

BELIAL BELILLA

Belisa v. Isabel

BELITRE

BELMAR

BELOROFONTE
BELZEBVB
BELLEZA
BELLON
BELLOTA

BENAVAR BENAVENTE BENDEZIR

BEN-

BENDICION
beneficencia v. BENEFICIO
beneficiado v. BENEFICIO
BENEFICIO (PRESTAMERA)
beneficio de natura v. BVEY

benevolencia v. BENEFICIO benevolo v. BENEFICIO

BENGALA

benignidad v. Benigno

benefico v. BENEFICIO

BENIGNO BENITO

BENJVI (MENJVI) beodez v. BEODO

BEODO BERBENA

Berberia v. Barbaria berberisco v. Barbaria

BERÇA

berças con capachos v.

HERREÑAL bercera v. BERÇA berdascaços v. POLVO

BERENGENA

berengenero v. BERENGENA

BERGAMOTA

BERIL

BERLANGA BERLENGVAS

bermegia v. BERMEJO

BERMEJO BERMEJVELAS

BERMELLON (BERMEJO)

BERMVDO I |
BERMVDO III
BERMVDO III
BERNABE
BERNARDINA
BERNARDINO
BERNARDO
BERNEGAL

BERNIA (BRAGADVRA;

HIBERNIA)
Berones v. BRIONES
BERRACO 1 s. BARRACO
BERRACO 2 (BARRACO)
berraza v. BERROS
berriondez v. BERRACO

berriondo v. BARRACO; BERRACO

BERROCAL (BERRVGA)

BERROS

berrueco v. BERRYGA

BERRVGA BERVI

besamanos v. BESAR

BESAR

beso v. BESAR; BESVCAR

BESOS

BESTIA 1, 2

bestial v. Bestia 2

BESTIALIDAD
BESTION 1, 2
BESVCAR

BESVGO BESVQVETE BETANZOS

Betica v. Betis

BETIS

30 BETONICA (VETONICA) biril v. BERIL BETYLLA BIRLOS BETVN BIRRETE BETVRIA BIRRHOS birsaleta v. Bolsa BEXIGA BEXIGAS BISAGRA BEXIN (HONGO) BISAGVELO BEZAR BISIESTO BEZERRIL bismalva v. DIALTEA BEZERRO 1, 2 BISNAGA BEZO (LABIO) BISNIETO BIAZAS BISOJO Bibafajalaufa v. BIBARRAMBLA BISONTE BIBALBUNAITAR BISOÑO Bibalbunaytar v. BIBARRAMBLA BISPERAS BIBALMAZAN bissextil v. bisiesto BIBARRAMBLA BIVDA Bibarrea v. BIBARRAMBLA bivora v. BIBORA BIBARREHA BIZARRIA (ABIGARRADO) BIBATAVBIN (BIBARRAMBLA) bizarro v. ABIGARRADO; BIBLIA BIZARRIA BIZAZAS (BIAZAS; cf. BIÇAZAS) bibliopola v. BIBLIA biblioteca v. BIBLIA BIZCOCHO BIBORA BIZMA BIÇAZAS (cf. BIZAZAS) bizmado v. BIZMA Blai v. BIZMA BICOCA BLANCA 1, 2 BICOS blanco v. BLANCA 1 BIELDO BIEN BLANDA bienandante v. ANDAMIO blandear v. BLANDA bifido v. CIERVO blando v. BLANDA BIGAMO BLANDON BIGARDO blandura v, blanda blanduxo v. Blanda bigarro v. ABIGARRADO BIGORNIA BLANES BIGOTES (MOSTACHO) blanquear v. Blanca 1 bilance v. BALANÇA blanquete v. ALVAYALDE BILBAO blasfemar v. Blasfemia

bilma v. BIZMA

BILLON

BIMESTRE BINAR

BLASON

PLASFEMIA

blasfemo v, blasfemia

BLASONAR BLEDOS blezo v. BRIZO

BOAL BOATO BOBADILLA

bobalia v. вово 2 bobarron v. вово 2

BOBATICO

bobear v. вово 2 bobillo v. вово 2

BOBO 1, 2 (BAMBARRIA)

BOBO, 3
BOCA
BOCACI
BOCADO

BOCAL 1, 2 bocanada v. BOCA Bocanegra v. BOCA

bocaran v, Bocaci

BOCERO
BOCINA
BOCON
BOCHIN

BODA (REDOMA) BODEGA (BOTA)

BODEGON (ENGAÑO; HIGVERA)

BODEGONERO BODIGO

bodocazo v. Bodoqve Bodoqve (Albondiga)

BOFENA BOFES BOFETADA BOFETAN

BOFETON (BOFETADA)

BOGA

BOGADA (BVGADA; NIEVE)

BOGAR

bogavante v. BOGAR;

ESPALDERES boglia v. Forcado

BOHARDO

bohena v. BOFENA

BOHEÑA

BOHONERO (BOX)

bohordo v. ESPADAÑA; IVNCO

BOLA BOLADO

bolandera v. BOLADO bolante v. BOLADO

BOLAR

BOLARMENICO

bolatin v. BOLADO; BVRATO

BOLCAR bolear v. BOLA

BOLEO

boleto v. Hongo

BOLICHE

POLETIN

bolillo v. BOLA; PALILLOS

BOLINA (SONDA) BOLO (BOLA) BOLOARMENICO

BOLONIA BOLOS

BOLSA (ESCARCELA)
bolsico v. BOLSA
bolson v. LINTEL
boltario v. BOLVER
bolteador v. BOLTEAR

BOLTEAR BOLVER BOLLO

BOLLOMAIMON

BOMBA

BOMBARDA (ARCABVZ)

BONANÇA

bonetada v, BONETE

BONETE

bonetero v. BONETE
bonetillo v. BONETE
BOÑIGA (BVEY)
BOOTES
boqueada v. BOQVEAR
BOQVEAR (BOCA)
boqueron v. BOCA
boquihundido v. BOCA
boquimuelle v. BOCA
boquirrubio v. BOCA
boquirseco v. BOCA

BORBOLLON

bordador v. BORDAR bordadura v. BORDAR

BORDAR

BORDE (BASTARDO; BORDAR;

BVRDEL) bordo v. Bohordo BORDON 1, 2

bordoncillo v. Bordon 2

BORDONERO

boreal v. BORRASCA

BORGOÑA BORJA BORJE BORLA

borlilla v. BORLA

BORNE

bornear v. BORNE

BORNI BOROX BORRA

BORRACHA (BORRACHO)
borrachada v. BORRACHO
borracheria v. BORRACHO
borracheria v. BORRACHO
borrachez v. BORRACHO

BORRACHO BORRADOR

borraja v. Byglosa

BORRAR

BORRASCA 1, S. BORREAS

BORRASCA 2, s. BORRASCA borrasquilla v. BORRASCA BORRAX (ATINCAR)

BORRAXA BORREAS

BORREGO (BORRA)

BORRENAS 1, s. BORRACHA BORRENAS 2, s. BORRASCA 2 borrica v. BORRICO; BVRRA

BORRICO

borriquillo v. ASNO borron v. BORRAR BORZEGVI (BOLSA)

BOSAR

BOSCAJE (BOSQVEJAR)

BOSQVE

bosquear v. Byscar

BOSQVEJAR

bosquejo v. Bosqvejar

BOSTEZAR

bostezo v. Bostezar

BOTA (BORRACHA, BORRACHO)

botador v. BOTAR 2

BOTANA

BOTAR 1, 2, 3 BOTE 1, 2

BOTERO

botiboleo v. BOLEO; BOTE 2

BOTICA

BOTICARIO (FARMACOPOLA)

BOTIJA

botijon v. BOTIJA

BOTILLERIA BOTILLERIA

botinillo v. BOTIN botivo v. BOTIN BOTO 1, 2

BOTON

boton de fuego v. CAVTERIO

BOVEDA

BOX

BOYA 1, 2 (BOCHIN) boyada v. BVEY boyeriço v. BVEY

BOZ

bozeria v. Boz

bozezar v. Bostezar Bozina (cverno) bozinglero v. Boz

BOZO

braçada v. Braço 4; ANA 2 braçalete v. Braço 4; AXORCAS

bracear v. braço 4 bracero v. braço 4

BRACO

BRAÇO 1, 2, 3, 4 (FLEMA)

brafon v. BRAHON
BRAFONERAS

BRAGA

bragado v. BRAGADVRA

BRAGADVRA BRAGAS

bragueto v. BRAGAS bragueto v. BRAGAS

BRAHON BRAMANTE BRAMAR

bramido v. BRAMAR BRANCADA (AGALLA) brancas v. AGALLA

BRASA

braserito v. Brasa brasero v. Brasa

BRASIL

bravata v. Bravo bravear v. Bravo braveza v. Bravo

BRAVO

bravonel v. Bravo brazon v. Blason

BREA

brebaxo v. beber 2 breço v. brezo 1

BREGA

bregar v. Brega breguero v. Brega Brenca (CVLANTRILLO)

BREÑA BRETAÑA BRETE

BRETON (BROTAR)

BRETONICA

BREVA (ALBACORA; HIGO)

BREVAJE

BREVE (ABREVIAR) brevedad v. BREVIARIO

BREVIARIO

BREZO 1, S. BREA (COMBLEZA)

BREZO 2
BRIAL

briço v. COMBLEZA (cf. BRIZO)

BRIDA

bridon v. BRIDA BRIGA (BREGA) briga v. ABRIGO brigones v. BRIGA

BRINCAR

brinco v. BRINCAR

BRINDAR

brindez v. BRINDAR

BRINDEZ BRIO BRIONES

brisas de enero v. HALCIONES

brivia v, BRIVION

BRIVIESCA BRIVION

brizar v. BRIZO BRIZO (COMBLEZA)

BROCA BROÇA

brocado v. Broca brocal v. Broca

brocha v, brock BVETAGOS BROCHERO BVEY (VACA) brochon v. BROCA; PINCEL buf v, bohordo BVFALO BRODIO BRODISTA BVFAR BROMA BVFETE bufido v. Byfar BRONCO BRONZE . bufo v. BVFAR; BOHONERO; BROQVEL (BROCA)

BROQVEL (BROCA)

broquelero v. BROCA

BROSLADOR

brosladura v. BROSLADOR

broslar v. BROSLADOR

BROTAR

BROTAR

BYGIA

BYGIA

BYGIA

BYGIA

BRETON buhada v. BVHO

BROZNO BVHO
BRVMAR BVHONERO
BRVNETE BVIDO

bruñidor v. Brvñir buir v. Bvido Brvñir buitrera v. Bvitron

BRVSCO (IVSBARBA 1) BVITRON 1, 8. BVEITRE brutal v. BRVTO BVITRON 2, 8. BVIDO

BRVTO BVLA
BRVXA BVLDEROS

bruxo v. Brvxa buleto v. Boletin; Bvla Brvxvla buljaca v. Bvrjaca

bruxulear v. brvxvla bvlto

BRVZOS (DE BRVZOS)

BVLLA (BVLLIR; AMPOLLA)

BVBAS (cf. BVVAS)

bullicio v. BVLLIR

bullicios v. BVLLIR

BVCARO BVLLIR
BVCEFALO buñolera v. BVÑVELO

bucha v. Byche Byñyelo

BVCHE BURACO v. HORADO

BVCHORNO buratin v. BVRATO

BVEITRE BVRATO

bueitrer v. Byeitre Byrbyja

BVELO (FABRICA) burbujo v. BVRBVJA

BVELTO (BOLVER)

BVELTOS S. BOLVER

BVENO

BVENO

BVENDEGANO

BVENDEL (BORDE)

burdo v. BVENDEL

BVREO

BVRGALESES (PEPIONES)

BVRGAS (ABRIGO)

BVRGO BVRGOS

BURIEL (ESBIRRO; GRIS)

BVRIL BVRJACA BVRLA

burlador v. BVRLA burlon v. BVRLA BVRRA (ESBIRRO) burras v. BIRRETE

BVRRIANA

burro v. Borrico bursaca v. Bosla bursegui v. Bolsa

bursuleta v. BARJVLETA

BVRVJO BVRVJON

burula v. bvrla burxaca v. bolsa

BVSCAR BVSCO

busola v. BRVXVLA

BVSTOS

BVSVLA (BRVXVLA; BVXVLA)

BVVAS (cf. BVBAS)

BVXARRON 1, 8. BVXVLA BVXARRON 2, 8. BVXETA buxeria v. BOHONERO; BOX

BVXETA (BOHONERO; BOX)

buxonero v. Box BVXVLA s. BVGETA BVZ (BESAR)

BVZANO BVZOS

byrrhos v. birrete

 \mathbf{C}

С

CABAL

CABALA

cabalistico v. Cabala

caballo (edad del —) v. CERRAR

CABAÑA CABAÑVELAS CABDALES

cabdel v. cabeça Cabdellador Cabdellar

eabdillo v. Cabdellador

CABE CABEÇA

cabeça de tordo v. ATVRDIR

cabeçada v. cabeça

cabeçal v. cabeça; architri-

CLINOS

cabeçalero v. CABEÇA; ALBACEA;

TESTAMENTO cabecear v. Cabeça cabecera v. Cabeça cabeço v. Cabeça

cabeçon v. CABEZON; FALQVIAS

cabeçudo v. CABEÇA cabeçuela v. CABEÇA cabelladura v. CABELLO

CABELLO CABELLO

cabero v, cabo

cabestrero v. Cabestro Cabestrillo (Cabestro) Cabestro s. Cabida

CABEZON CABIDA

ÇABIDA 8. ÇATICO
CABILDO (CAPITVLO)
cabizcaydo v. CABEÇA
cabizmordido v. CABEÇA

CABO

ÇABORDAR

CABRA (CORNVDO) CABRAHIGO (HÍGVERA) CABRAS 8. CABRON Cabrejas v. CABRERA; CABRERO C

CABRERA CABRERO

CABRILLAS CABRIO

cabriola (BRINCAR) cabriolo v. Cabriola cabrita v. Cabrito

cabritilla v. Cabrito

CABRITO

cabron (cornvdo)
cabruno v. cabras

ÇABVLLIR CACA CAÇA

CAÇADOR CAÇALAOLLA

CAÇALLA
caçar v. CAÇA
CACAREAR
ÇACATIN
CACERES

CACO
CAÇO
CACODAEMON

caçoleta v. CAÇO caçolexa v. CAÇO

CAÇON

CACIQVE

CAÇORLA 1, 8. CACERES

CAÇORLA 2
caçuela v. CAÇO
caçurla v. CAÇVRRAS

CAÇVRRAS

caçurro v. CAÇVRRAS

CACHAS

CACHERA (FRAÇADA)

CACHETE

CACHIGORDETE CACHIVACHES

CACHO 1, 8. CAÇVRRAS

CACHO 2 (CACHETL; GACHO)

CACHONDA

cachondez v. CACHONDA CACHORRO (CACHONDA) CACHVELA (CACHAS)

CADA

CADAHALSO (TABLADO)

CADAÑERA CADENA CADENETA CADERA CADILLOS

cadira v. CATEDRA

CADIZ CADOZO CADVCO

caediço v. CAIDA

CAER

caerse los braços v. FLEMA

ÇAFARI ÇAFERIA CAFILA ÇAFIO ÇAFIR ÇAFRA ÇAGA

cagada v. CAGAR

CAGAFOGO CAGAL

çagala v. ÇAGAL çagalejo v. ÇAGAL cagalera v. CAGAR

CAGAR

cagarruta v. CAGAR cagatorio v. CAGAR cagon v. CAGAR

ÇAGVAN

çaguero v. ÇAGA çahara v. ÇAHARENO

ÇAHARENO ÇAHARRON ÇAHENES

CALATAÑOZ

CALATAYVD CALATRAVA

CAH	37 CAL
CAHERIR	calça v. calças; talega
ÇAHINAS	CALÇADA
CAHIZ	CALÇADO
ÇAHON	CALÇADOR
CAHOR	CALCAÑAL (CARCAÑAL)
ÇAHORI	CALÇAR
ÇAHVRDA	CALÇAS
caiada v. CAYADO	calças de diablo v . FOLLADO
CAIDA	CALCEDONIA
ÇAIDA	calcetero v . CALÇAS
ÇAINO	calcina v . CAL
CAL (CALLE)	calçon v . calças; çahon
CALA 1, 2	calculator v. contador 2
ÇALA	caldehita v . CALLE
CALABAÇA (CORCOBÁ)	CALDERA (PENDOLA)
calabaçada v. CALABAÇA	caldereria v . CALDERERO
calabaçate v. CALABAÇA	CALDERERO
CALABAZANOS	calderilla v . CALDERA
CALABERA S. CALATRAVA	CALDERINO
(CALABRIADA)	CALDERO
calaberna v . CALABERA	CALDERON
calaboço v. CARCEL	CALDO
CALABRIA	ÇALEA
CALABRIADA (ALOQVE)	ÇALEMA
calafa v. CALEPHA	CALENDA S. CALENDARIOS
calafatar v. CALAFATE	CALENDARIOS
CALAFATE	CALENDAS
calafatear v. CALAFATE	calentador v . CALENTVRA
ÇALAGARDA	CALENTAR 1
CALAHORRA	CALENTAR 2, S. CALLE
CALAMAR	CALENTVRA
CALAMBRE	CALEPHA
CALAMIDAD	CALERA (CAL)
calamistrato v. CABELLO	calero v . CALERA
CALAMITA	CALICVD
calamitoso v. CALAMIDAD	CALIDAD
CALAMON (PORFIRION)	caliente v. CALENIVRA
CALANDRIA	calificacion v. CALIFICAR
CALAR (CALABOZO)	calificador v. Calificar

CALIFICAR CALIGVLA

CALINA

38 CALISTO CAMARISTA CALIZ 1, 2 CAMARLENGO CALMA 1 CAMAROIA CALMA 2, s. CALLO camaroja v. CHICORIA; ENDIBIA; CALNADO (CANDADO) CAMAROIA CALONGIA (CANONIGO) CAMARON CALONIA çamarra v. ÇAMARRO caloña v. CALONIA çamarrear v. çamarro CALOR ÇAMARRO CALOSTRO (LECHE) camarroja v. CAMAROIA; CALPE CHICORIA; ENDIBIA CALVMNIA CAMAS CALVA CAMBALACHE calvar v. CALVA CAMBAS CALVARIO CAMBIO CALVATRVENO CAMBO calvo v. Calva CAMBRAI callado v. CALLAR CAMBRON CALLAR cambronera v. CAMBRON Callar v. Callar CAMELOTE S. CAMELLA 2 callares v. CALLAR CAMELLA 1 CALLE (ENCALLARSE) CAMELLA 2, s. CAMELLO calleja v. CALLE CAMELLO (DROMEDARIO) callejera v. CALLE CAMINO callejon v. CALLE CAMINO DE PLATA callejuela v. CALLE CAMISA callentar v. CALENTAR 1 camisilla v. CASTAÑA CALLO camisola v. camisa calloso v. Callo camison v. Camisa CAMA (CAMAS; CAMBAS) camisote v. Camisa camomilla v. MANÇANILLA CAMAFEO CAMAL 1, 2 CAMORA CAMALEON CAMPANA CAMARA (CONSEIO DE CAMARA) campanario v. CAMPANA CAMARADA CAMPANIA camaraje v. Conseio de camara campanil v. CAMPANA camaranchon v. conseio de campanilla v. Campana CAMARA campaña v. campo

CAMPARSE

CAMPIÑA

CAMPEADOR

CAMPEAR S. CAMPO

CAMARA) CAMARILLA camarin v. CAMARA

CAMARERO (CONSEIO DE

candeda v. CANDAMO

GORDOLOBO)

CANDELA (ALCANDORA; CERA;

candelerazo v. CANDELERO

CAMPO (CAMPIÑA) CANDELERO çampo v. ESTEVADO CANDELILLA **CAMPOÑA** CANDIA candidato v. Blanca 1 CAMPVZAR CANDIL CAMVESA CANDILADA CAMVZA candiota v. CANDIA CAN (CANICVLA) candiote v. CANDIA CANA CANEFA (FILATERIA) CANAHORIA CANAL 1, 2 CANELA CANALLA CANELONES CANFOR CANARIAS canario v. CANARIAS; ESCVELA CANGANO CANASTA CANGILON canasto v. Canasta cangrejo v. CANGILON CANCA CANICVLA S. CAN (CANICVLARES) çancadilla v. ÇANCA CANICVLARES canil v. Canina ÇANCAJO cancajoso v. CANCAJO CANILLA (AGVA) CANCANILLA canillero v. Canilla cancarron v. Cancajo CANINA S. CANICVLA CANCEL CANJA cancelar v. CANCILLER CANO (CANA) cancelaria v. CANCILLER CANOA cancelario v. CANCILLER canon 1 CANON 2, 8. CANONIGO CANCER canonicato v. canonigo cancerarse v. CANCER CANCERVERO CANONIGO canonista v. Canon CANCILERIA (sic) CANCILLER canonizacion v. CANONIZAR CANCION (CANTAR) CANONIZAR cancionero v. CANTAR çanquear v. ÇANCA CANCO çanquivano v. ÇANCA cancudo v. CANCO CANSADO CANDADO cansancio v. Cansado CANDAMO cansar(se) v. cansadocandar v. CANDADO CANTABRIA CANDEAL cantabro v. CANTABRIA

CANTAR

CANTARERO

cantara v. CANTARO

cantarera v. CANTARERO

CANCANTARES CANTARIDES cantarilla, -o, v. CANTARERO CANTARO (CANTARERO) cantera v. CANTON CANTERO (CANTON) CANTIDAD CANTIMPLORA S. CANTINA (GARRAFA) CANTINA CANTO 1, S. CANTARES CANTO 2, 3 CANTON (ESQVINADO) cantonada v. CANTON cantonera v, CANTON CANTONES cantor v. CANTAR

CANTVESO CAÑA (CANA) CAÑAFISTOLA (CAÑA) CAÑAHEIA cañaheja v. CAÑAHEIA cañaherla v. CAÑAHEIA cañal v. CAÑA cañamaco v. Camisa CAÑAMAR CAÑAMAZO (cf. CAÑAMAÇO) cañamiel v. caña

cañamisa v. CAÑAMO CAÑAMO CAÑAMON cañaveral v. CAÑA CAÑETE S. CAÑAFISTOLA cañilla v. CAÑA CAÑIZARES S. CAÑA cañizo v. CAÑA CAÑO S. CAÑON CAÑON S. CAÑVTO (ARCABVZ) cañonear v. ARCABVZ cañonera v, cañon cañuteria v. Cañvto

cañutillo v. CAÑVTO CAÑVTO S. CAÑAHEIA caosta v. clavstro 1 CAPA capacete v. ALMETE capacidad v. CAPAZ CAPADILLO (CHILINDRON) capado v. CABRON CAPAPVERCAS CAPAR S. CAPAZ caparazon v. CAPA CAPARDIEL CAPARI CAPARRA CAPARROSA (VITRIOLO) CAPATA CAPATAZ capateador v. CAPATO capatear v. CAPATO CAPATERA CAPATERIA capatero v. CAPATO çapateta v. ÇAPATO capatilla v. CAPATERIA CAPATO capaton v. CAPATERIA

CAPAZ CAPAZO S. CAPA capear v. CAPA CAPELINA CAPELO 1, 2 (CARDENAL) capellan v. CAPILLA 2 capellania v. CAPILLA 2 CAPELLAR capigorrista v. Gorra CAPILLA 1, 2, 3 CAPILLO capiron v. CAPIROTE CAPIROTADA CAPIROTE

capisayo v. CAPA

CAPISCOL CAPISCOLIA CAPITAN

capitanear v. CAPITAN

CAPITEL CAPITOLINO

CAPITOLIO 1, 8. CAMPANIA CAPITOLIO 2, 8. CAPITEL

CAPITVLACIONES

capitulante v. CAPITVLO
capitular v. CAPITVLO
CAPITVLO (CABILDO)
CAPON 8. CAPITVLACIONES

(CAPAR; CABRON; GALLO)

CAPONERA

CAPONES DE CENIZA S. CAPAR

CAPOTE S. CAPVZ (CAPA)

capotillo v. CAPA

captivar v. CAPTIVIDAD CAPTIVERIO s. CAVTIVO

CAPTIVIDAD

CAPTIVO (CAVTIVO)

CAPVLLO
CAPVZ
ÇAQVE
ÇAQVIÇAMI
CARA 1, 2, 3

CARA

CARABANA S. CARAVZ

ÇARABANDA CARABO ÇARAÇAS

CARACENA S. CARIÑO

CARACOL

CARACOLES 8. CARANTOÑA

caractér v. CARATER

ÇARAGATONA

çaragoci v. ÇARAGOZA

ÇARAGOZA ÇARAGVELLES CARAMBANO CARAMBOLA CARAMELES

CARAMILLO (ENCARAMAR)

ÇARANDA (CRIVO) CARANTOÑA CARAPVZA

GARATAN (CANCER)

CARATER
CARATVLA
CARAVZ
CARAVAJALES
CARAVELA
CARBON
CARBONADA

carbonero, -a, v. CARBON carbunco v. CARBON carbunculo v. CARBON

CARCA

çarça v. ÇARAÇAS; ESCARAMVJO

(cf. QARZA) QARQAGAN

çarçaganete v. ÇARÇAGAN

ÇARÇAHAN
carcaj v. CARCAX
CARCAJADA

çarçamora v. ÇARZA CARCAÑAL (TALON) ÇARÇAPARRILLA

carcassada v. Carcajada

CARCAVA (CAVA) CARCAVON CARCAX

CARCAXADA (ARCA 2) çarcear v. ÇARZA

CARCEL

carceleria v. CARCELERO

CARCELERO

ÇARCETA (ÇARZA)

ÇARCILLOS (ÇARAÇAS)

ÇARCO v. ÇARCA; AZARCON

çarço v. ÇARZA CARCOMA

carcomer(se) v. CARCOMA

CARLOS

carcomiento v. CARCOMA carmel v. CARMEN ÇARÇVELA · carmelita v. CARMEN carchesia v. CARCAX CARMEN CARDA carmenador v. CARMENAR cardar v. CARDA CARMENAR CARDENA CARMESI (GRANA) CARDENAL CARMIN CARDENCHA CARMONA CARNAL (CARNE) CARDENILLO cardilla v. coraçon carnalidad v. CARNE CARDILLO carnaval v. Carnal cardin v. Exe 1 carnaza v. enves CARDO CARNE (CARNERO 1; CARNEcarducha v. CARDA MOMIA) carear v. cara 3; afrontar CARNEMOMIA CARNERO 1, 2 (CAPAR; GVESSO) CARECER CARENA (BREA) CARNESTOLENDAS S. CARNICOL CARESTIA S. CARO (CARECER) (CARNAL) CARGA CARNIBORO carniceria v. CARNEMOMIA cargar v. CARGO cargazon v. CARGO carnicero v. CARNEMOMIA; CARGO (PROVINCIA) CORTAR CARIACONTECIDO (ACONTECER) CARNICOL cariaguileño v. CARICVERDO carnivora v. CARNE CARIATIDES carniza v. Carnemomia CARICIA (CARESTIA) carnosidad v. Carnemomia CARICVERDO CARO 1, 8. CARACOLES CARO 2, s. CARNIBORO CARIDAD carilargo v. CARICVERDO caro (hacer el —) v. ANTENA carillejo v. CARILLO CARPA CARILLO çarpa v. ÇARPAR carina v. ENDECHAS CARPAR CARIÑO 1, s. CARESTIA carpastroso v. Carpar cariño 2 carpido v. CARPIR cariredondo v. CARICVERDO carpintear v. CARPINTERO carpintera v. CARPINTERO CARISEA caritativo v. Caridad CARPINTERO CARLANCAS CARPIO carlear v. CARLANCAS CARPIR carlina v. CARDO CARRACA CARLINES (FILIPOS)

CARRACATIN

çarrapastroso v. ÇARPAR

CARRASCA (ESCASO)
carrascal v. CARRASCA
carrascosa v. CARRASCA
carraspada v. RASPAR
carrasqueño v. CARRASCA
carrastolendas v. CARNAL
carrer v. CALLE; CARRERA

CARRERA CARRETA

carretero (carro 2)
carretilla v. carretero
carreton (carretera)
carretoncillo v. carretera

CARRICOCHE (CHERRION)
CARRIL (EXORBITANTE)
carrillada v. CARRILLO 2

CARRILLO 1, 2

CARRION

carrizal v. Carrizo Carrizo 1, s. Carrillo Carrizo 2, s. Carro 2

CARRO 1, 2
CARROÑA
CARROZ

CARROZA (CARRO 1)

CARRVAGE CARRVS CARRVXADO CARTA

CARTABON (CARTA) cartacuenta v. CARTA

CARTAGENA CARTAGO

cartanova v. Carta cartapacio v. Carta cartapel v. Carta cartear v. Carta cartel v. Carta cartela v. Carta cartero v. Carta cartilla v. Carta

carton v. CARTA; PAPELES

CARTVXA

cartuxano v. Cartuxa

ÇARZA ÇAS CASA

casa de San Anton v. Conta-

GIOSO

casa de San Lazaro v. conta-

CASACA

casada v. casado

CASADO CASAMATA

casamentero v. CASA casamiento v. CASA

casar v. casa; gamella 1

CASCA CASCABEL

cascabelada v. CASCABEL

 ${\tt CASCADO}$

cascajal v. CASCA; CASCAJO

CASCAJO CASCAPIÑONES CASCAR

CASCARA CASCARON CASCO

cascote v. CASCAJO

CASERA

CASERO (CASERA)

CASI

CASIA (CAÑAFISTOLA; CANELA)

casiaca v. CASACA

casilla v. casa caso 1, 2 caspa

CASQVETADA 8, CASCADO casquete v. CASCO

CASQVILLO 8. CASQVETADA CASSAR 8. CASAMATA

CASTA

CASCAVCASTAÑA (CASTAÑETA) CATASTROPHE CASTAÑAR CATECISMO CASTAÑETA CATECVMENO castañetear v. Castañeta CATECHIZAR CASTAÑO (CASTAÑA) CATEDRA CASTELLANO CATEDRAL catedrar v. CATEDRATICO CASTIDAD castigacion v. Castigar 2 CATEDRATICO CASTIGAR 1, 2 CATEGORIA castigo v. Castigar cathedra v. DATHEDRALITOS castil v. Castillejo cathedralitos v. DATHEDRALITOS cathre v, cama CASTILLA CASTILLEJO CATICO CASTILLO (CASTILLEJO) CATIVAR castizo v. casta CATOBLEPAS CASTO CATOLICO CASTOR CATOLICON castradera v. CASTRADO CATON CASTRADO (CAPAR) CATORZE castrador v. Castrado CATORZEÑO castrapuercas v. Castrado CAVCION (FIADOR) . caucionero v. CAVCION; FIADOR CASTRAR CAVDAL (CAVALGAR) CASTRENSE caudaloso v. CAVDAL CASTRO (ESCAQVE) castron v. CASTRADO; CAPAR CAVDILLO CASVAL 1, s. CASO 2 CAVSA CASVAL 2, s. CASTRO CAVSA SEGVNDA. S. CAVALGAR CASVLLA CAVSAR cata v. CATAR; HORCA; CALA 1 cavson 1 CAVSON 2, s. CAVSA SEGVNDA

catadura v. Catar

CATALAN CATALINA

Catalnica v. Catalina

CATALVÑA CATANES CATAPLASMO

CATAR

CATARA cataracta v. CATARATA

CATARAÑA CATARATA CATARRO (DISTILATORIO) cauterizar v. CAVTERIO CAVTIVO 1, S. CATIVAR

causto v. CAVSTICO

cauteloso v. CAVTELA cauteria v. CAVSTICO

CAVTIVO 2 CAVA (FOSO) CAVA CAVADOR

CAVSTICO

CAVTELA

CAVTERIO

CEBO

CEBOLLA

CAV.	TO
CAVADVRA	cebollar v . CEBOLLINO
CAVAL	cebollera v. cebollino
CAVALGADA	CEBOLLINO
cavalgador v. CAVALGAR	cebon v . CEBO
CAVALGADVRA	CEBRA
CAVALGAR	CEBRATANA
CAVALLERATO	CEBREROS
CAVALLERIA (CAVALLERO)	CEBRINA
CAVALLERIZA	CECA
CAVALLERIZO	CECEAR (C)
CAVALLERO (CAVALLO)	ceceoso v . Cecear
CAVALLO (BORDON 1)	CECIAL (FRESCO; MERLVZA)
CAVAÑA 1, S. CATORZE	CECILIA
CAVAÑA 2, s. CAVERNOSO	CECINA
CAVAÑAS (CABAÑVELAS)	cecinado v. CECINA
CAVAÑVELAS (cf. CABAÑVELAS)	cecinar v. CECINA
CAVAR S. CAVA	ceço v. cecear
cavasa v. GAVASA	ced v. cero 2
CAVERNA	cedacero v . CEDACILLO
CAVERNOSO	CEDACILLO
cavilacion v. CAVALGAR	CEDAZO
caviloso v. CAVALGAR	CEDRO
CAXA	CEDVLA
CAXERO	CEDVLONES
caxeta v. caxon	CEGAJOSO
CAXON	CEGAR
CAYADO (BACVLO)	cegarritas v. cegajoso
çaydia v. ÇAIDA	CEGVEDAD
CAYMAN	CEGVERA
CAYREL	CEGVTA
CAYRELAR	CEJA
CAYRO	CEJAR
CAZ 8. CACAREAR	cejunto v . сеја
CAZALLA	CELADA (EMBOSCARSE)
(Las voces que empiezan con ce-	CELAR (CELOSO)
se encuentran después de cu-)	CELDA
CE	CELEBRAR
¹cebada v. сево	celebre v . Celebrar
cebarse v. CEBO	celebridad v . Celebrar
CEBELLINAS (MARTA)	CELEBRO
arm o	

CELEMIN

CELESTIAL

CELESTINA

CELEVES S. CAXON

CELIBATO

CELIDONIA (GOLONDRINA)

CELO

CELOSIA (CANCEL)
CELOSA 1, S. CELAR
CELOSA 2, S. CELO
CELOSO S. CELOSA 1

CELTIBERIA

CELTICI S. ALCVDIA

 ${\tt CEMENTERIO}$

CENA 1

CENA 2, 8. CENADOR

CENACVLO CENADOR

CENAGAL (CIENO)
cenagoso v. CIENO
CENCEÑO (LEVADVRA)
cencerrear v. CENCERRO
cencerrilla v. CENCERRO

CENCERRO CENDAL

cendolilla v. CENDAL

CENDRA

cendrado v. Cendra

CENID CENIZA

cenizero v. CENIZIENTO

CENIZIENTO

CENOGIL (IARRETERA 1)

CENOTAFIO

censatorio v. censo

CENSO

CENSORES s. CEPHOS censual v. CENSO

CENTAVRA

CENTAVRO (CENTAVRA)

CENTELLA

centellear v. CENTELLA centena v. CIENTO centenar v. CIENTO

centenario v. CIENTO

CENTENO
CENTRO
CENTURIA

centurias v. ANALES ceñidor v. CEÑIR; CINTO

CEÑIDOS 8. CINTO

CEÑIR 1, 8. CENIZIENTO (CINTO)

CEÑIR 2, s. CENTRO CEÑO 1, s. CEÑIR 1 CEÑO 2, s. CEÑIR 2 CEÑVDO (CEÑO)

CEPA

CEPHOS 8. CELEVES

CEPILLO

CEPO 1, s. CEPHOS CEPO 2, s. CEPA

CEQVI CERA

CERAPEZ (ATANQVIA)
CERBERO (CANCERVERO)

CERCA 1, 2

cercado v. CERCAR

CERCAR CERCEN

cercenadura v. CERCEN

cercenar v. ACERCEN; CERCEN

CERCETA CERCILLO

cercio v. CIERÇO

cerco v. CERCAR; CIRCVLO

CERDA

cerdanas v. ESCVELA

CERDEÑA

cerder v. CERNER cereço v. CEREZA

ceremonia v. CEREMONIATICO

CEREMONIATICO cereria v. CERA cerero v. CERA

CERES

CEREZA	cespitario v . Estropieço
CERIBONES	cessacion v. cessar
CERIMONIA (sic)	CESSAR
CERNADA 1, s. CERDA (CENIZA)	CESTA
CERNADA 2, s. CEREMONIATICO	CESTO (CESTA; CORDERO;
CERNADERO	ESTVPRO)
CERNEDERO (CERNADERO)	CETRERIA (ALCANDARA)
CERNEJAS	CETRINO
CERNER (CERNICALO)	CETRO (ALCANDARA)
CERNICALO	CEVTI
cernir v. cerner	CEVADA
CERO 1 s. CERES	CEVADERA
CERO 2	CEVADARA
CEROFERARIOS 8. CIRIAL	CEVIL
(CANDELA)	CEVO
CEROTE 1, s. CERO 1 (ÇAPATERA)	CEXAR
CEROTE 2, s. CERO 2	(Las voces que empiezan con ci-
cerradero v. CERRAR	se encuentran después de ce
cerradura v. CERRAR	Véase arriba)
CERRAJAS (CERRAR)	CIAR
	ciatica v. CIAR
cerrajero v. cerrar	CIBERA
	CICATRIZ
CERRALLE	CICIAL (CECIAL)
CERRAR	Cicilia v. ciciliano
CERRATO	
CERRION (CARAMBANO)	CICILIANO
CERRO	cicion v. CICIAL
certero v. CIERTO	ciclan v. CICLOPES
CERTIFICAR	CICLOPES
certificatoria v. CERTIFICAR	CICVTA
cerusa v. ALVAYALDE	CID
CERVANTES	CIDRA
CERVATILLO	cidro v. CIDRA
CERVEZA	CIEGO (CEGAR)
cerviguillo v. cerviz	CIELO
CERVIZ	CIENCIA
cervuno v . CIERVO	CIENO
CESAR	CIENTO
cesarea v . Cesar	CIENTOPIES (ESCOLOPENDRA)
CESARIANOS	ciercina v. CECINA
CESARINOS	CIERÇO
CESIS	cierne v . CERNER

cintilante v. CENTELLA

CINTILLO

	to.
CIERTO	CINTO (CEÑIR; CINGVLO; CINTA)
cierva v . CIERVO	cintoria v. Centavra
CIERVO (ESCOLOPENDRA)	cintura v. cinto
CIFRA	CIPION (IVNCO)
CIFRAR	CIPRES
CIGARRA	CIRAT
CIGARRAL	circaso v. mamelycos
CIGATERA	CIRCO
CIGOÑAL (GRVA)	CIRCVITO
CIGVEÑA (CIGOÑAL)	circular v. circvito
CILARO	CIRCVLO
CILICIO	CIRCVNCIDAR
CILINDRO	circuncision v . CIRCUNCIDAR
CILLA	circunciso v . CIRCVNCIDAR
cillerizo v . CILLA	CIRCVNFERENCIA
cillero v . CILLA	CIRCVNSPECTO
CIMA	CIRCVNVEZINOS
CIMBORIO	CIRIAL (CIRIO)
CIMBRAR	CIRIO (CANDELA)
cimbria v . CIMBRAR	CIRRO (CERRO)
CIMENTERIO	CIRVELA
CIMERA	cirugia v. cirvjano
CIMIENTO	CIRVJANO
CIMITARRA	cis v. ÇAS
CIMORRA	CISCARSE
CINAMOMO (CANELA)	CISCO
CINCEL 1	CISMA
CINCEL 2, S. CINCHA	cismatico v. CISMA
CINCO (LARGO)	CISNE
CINCHA	cistel v. cister
cinchar v. CINCHA	CISTER
CINFONIA	cisterciense v. cister
CINGARO (CONDE DE GITANOS;	CISTERNA
GITANO)	CITAR
CINGVLO	CITARA
CINICO	citatoria v. citar
cinnabro v. sangre de drago	cithara v . CITARA
CINOSVRA	CITO (EXE 2; HARRE)
CINTA	CITOLA
cintero v . CEÑIR	CIVDAD

CIVDAD REAL

CIVDAD RODRIGO

CLERIZON

CLIMA

CIVDADANO CLIN CIVIL clinico v. ARCHITRICLINOS; CLAMAR (CLAMOR) CIRVJANO clistel v. CRISTEL CLAMOR clamorear v. CLAMOR CLVECA (CVCLILLAS) clunada v. ANCA CLARA CLARABOYAS CLYSTEL (cf. CLISTEL) CLAREA (NIEVE) CO v. ACOMAR claridad v. CLARO coabitar v. ABITAR clarificar v. CLARO COADIVTOR CLARIN COALLA CLARO COBARDE CLAROS COBEGERA COBERTERA (CVBRIR) CLASE clauquillador v. CLAVQVILLAR COBERTIZO (CVBRIR) CLAVQVILLAR COBERTOR claustral v. CLAUSTRO 1 COBIJA CLAVSTRO 1, 2 cobrador v. COBRAR CLAVSVLA cobrança v. Cobrar clausular v. Claysyla COBRAR CLAVSVRA COBRE CLAVA cobro v. Cobrar clavario v. CLAVERO COCA 1 (GVSANO; COCOTE) CLAVE (COPVLA) COCA 2 CLAVEL (GVINDA) COCADOVER clavellina v. CLAVEL COCAR cocco v. ALQVERME CLAVERO clavicimbalo v. CLAVICORDIO COCEAR CLAVICORDIO S. CLAVIJO COCENTAYNA COCES (DAR-) S. COCEAR CLAVIJA cocimiento v. COZINA CLAVIJO claviorgano v. CLAVICORDIO cocina v. COZINA CLAVO 1, 2 COCINERO CLEMENCIA COCO 1, 2, 3 (COCA; COCAR; clemente v. CLEMENCIA CARRASCA; CVCO; GRANO) CLEMENTINOS ÇOÇOBRA clerecia v. CLERIGO 2 cocodover v. cocadoverclerical v. CLERIZON COCODRILO clericato v. CLERIGO 1 cocorron v, cocote CLERIGO 1, 2 cocoso v. GVSANO

COCOTE

cochambre v. Cozer

COHOMBRO

coja v. coxo

COCHE COJON COCHERA cojudo v. cojon cochero v, cochera COL COCHINILLA (GRANA: COCO 2) COLA 1, 2, 3 COCHINO COLA DE CAVALLO 8. COLA 1 COCHITE (COZER) COLACION 1, 2, 3, 4 cochlea v. CARACOL COLADA cocho v. Cozer coladero, -a v. COLAR COCHVRA COLAR (COLACION) $\operatorname{codal} v. \operatorname{codo}$ COLATERAL CODERA colchar v. Colchas codicia v. Codiciar; Cydicia COLCHAS CODICIAR (CVDICIA) COLCHON colchonero v. COLCHON CODICILO codicioso v. CVDICIA colecta v. COLETOR 1 colecturia v. COLETOR 1 CODIGO colegial v. Colegio CODO CODON COLEGIO codoñate v. MEMBRILLO; CODON COLEGIR codoño v. MEMBRILLO COLERA colerico v. COLERA CODORNIZ COFTA COLETA (CABELLERA) COFIN COLETANEO COFRADE (HERMANO) COLETOR 1, 2 cofradia v. Cofrade COLGADIZO colgadura v. colgar 2 COFRE colgajo v. COLGAR 1 COGER COLGAR 1, 2, s. COLETANEO cogijo v. Coscoia COLGAR 3, s. COLGADIZO cogijoso v. coscoia COGOLLO COLGAR 4, s. CVELLO COGOTE (COCOTE) COLIBRE cogujada v. ESMEREJON COLICA coligir v. COLEGIR COGVLLA COGVXADA (ESMEREJON) colino v. COL COGVXON COLIRIO COHECHAR COLISEO cohecho v. Cohechar COLMENA COHETE colmenar v. COLMENA colmenero v. COLMENA cohita v. CALLE COLMILLO (DIENTE) COHOMBRILLO

COLMO

COLODRA

COLODRILLO COLODRO COLON

colon v. colon

COLONIA COLOQVINTIDA

COLOR (SIRGVERO)

COLOR BAÇA 8. BAÇO (BAZO)

COLORADO

colorear v. Colorado colorir v. Colorado

COLOSO

coltorto v. CVELLO

COLVMBRAR
COLVMELA
COLVMNA
COLVMPIO

coluna v. Columna

COLVNAS DE HERCVLES 8.

COLVMNA
COLVROS
COLVSION
COLLADO

COLLAR (CVELLO)
COLLAZO (COLETANEO)
collera v. CVELLO
COMA (COMMA)
çoma v. ASSOMAR
COMADRE (MADRINA)

COMADREJA COMADRERO COMARCA

comarcano v. MARCA 1;

COMARCA

COMBA

combado v. COMBA combate v. COMBATIR combatiente v. COMBATIR

COMBATIR (BATIR)
COMBIDADO 8. COMBITE

COMBIDAR

COMBITE

COMBLEZA (BRIZO)

COMEDIA

comediante v. comedia

COMEDIDO

comedimento v. COMEDIDO comedirse v. COMEDIDO comedor v. COMER

COMENÇAR

COMENDADOR (ENCOMENDAR)
comenias v. Alcomenias

COMENSAL
COMER
COMETA
COMETER

comico v. Comedia

COMIDA

comienço v. COMENÇAR

COMIGO

comilon v. Comer

COMINO

comissario v. Cometer comission v. Cometer

COMITE

COMITRE (COMITE)
COMMA 8. COMA

COMO

comocion v. Comover

COMODO COMOVER

COMPADECERSE

COMPADRE (PADRINO) compañero v. Compañia COMPAÑIA 1, 2, 3

COMPAÑON

comparación v. Comparar

COMPARAR

compartimiento v. Compartir

COMPARTIR
COMPAS
COMPASAR

compatriota v.- PATRIA

COMPELER compelido v. Compeler COMPENDIO compendioso v. Compendio compensable v. Compensar compensacion v. Compensar COMPENSAR competencia v. Compensar competente v. Competer COMPETER competidor v. Compensar competir v. Compensar complacencia v. COMPLACER COMPLACER COMPLEXION componed or v. Componer COMPONER composition v. Componer COMPOSTELA compostura v. Componer COMPRAR COMPREHENDER comprehensor v. Compre-HENDER comprobacion v. Comprobar COMPROBAR COMPROMETER compromiso v. Comprometer comprovar v. Provar COMPVERTA COMPVLSAR compulsoria v. Compulsar COMPVNGIR computador v. contador 2 COMVLGAR COMVN comunicable v. Comunicar comunicación v. Comvnicar

COMVNICAR

COMVNIDAD

COMVNION

CON

concavidad v. concavo CONCAVO CONCEBIR CONCEDER concegil v. concejo CONCEJO CONCEPTO CONCERTAR concesion v. Conceder CONCIENCIA conciencudo v. conciencia concierto v. Concertar conciliabulo v. concilio conciliador v. CONCILIAR CONCILIAR CONCILIO CONCLAVE conclavista v. Conclave CONCLVIR CONCLUSION concluyente v. conclusion concordancia v. Concordar CONCORDAR CONCORDES CONCVBINA concubinario v. Concubina CONCVERIR concurso v. Concurrir CONCHA CONCHAVANÇA condado v. CONDE CONDE CONDE DE GITANOS 8. CONDES-TABLE CONDE PALATINO S. CONDE condenacion v. CONDENAR CONDENAR condesar v. CONDEXAR condesixo v, condexar CONDESTABLE

CONDEXAB

CONDICION

condicional v. CONDICION congio v. ESCANCIAR CONDIMENTO CONGOXA CONDOLERSE (DOLERSE) congoxarse v. Congoxa congoxoso v. Congoxa CONDVCHO CONGRACIARSE CONDVMIO CONDVTA congrete v. Congrio conduto v. CANAL 2 CONGRIO · conejal v. conejo CONGRVENCIA conejera v. CONEJO CONJETVRA conjuracion v. Conjurar 1 CONEJO confederacion v. CONFEDERAR CONJURAMENTAR CONFEDERAR CONJURAR 1, 2 conllevar v. LLEVAR CONFERENCIA conmigo v. Comigo CONFERIR connexidad v. ANEXO confessante v. Confessar CONFESSAR CONNVSCO confession v, confessar conocencia v. Conocimiento CONFESSO CONOCER confiança v. Confiar CONOCIDO CONFIAR CONOCIMIENTO confinar v. FINO CONORTAR confirmacion v. Confirmar CONQVISTAR CONFIRMAR (FIRMA) consagracion v. Consagrar confiscacion v. FISCO consagrante v. Consagrar CONFISCAR (FISCO) CONSAGRAR confitar v. Confite CONSANGVINIDAD CONFITE consecucion v. Conseguir confitera v. Confite consecutivamente v. conseguir confiteria v. CONFITE CONSEGVIR confitero v. CONFITE CONSEIO DE CAMARA S. CAMARconfitura v. CONFITE LENGO CONFLITO CONSEJA CONFORMAR (FORMAR) CONSEJEROS conforme v. Formar CONSEJO CONFORTAR consentimiento v, consentir confortativo v. Confortar CONSENTIR

confrontarse v. Frente CONFVNDIR confusion v. Confundir confuso v. Confundir CONFUTAR CONGELAR (ELAR)

consequencia v. Conseguir CONSERVA conservacion v. Conserva CONSERVAR (CONSERVA) CONSERVATORIAS conservera v. Conserva

CONSIDERAR CONSIGO CONSILARIO

consintiente v. consentir consolacion v. consolar consolador v. consolar

CONSOLAR CONSONAR

conspicillia v. antojos conspiracion v. espiritval conspirar (espiritval)

CONSTANCIA

constante v. Constar

CONSTANTINA CONSTANTINOPLA constantinopolitano v.

 ${\tt CONSTANTINOPLA}$

CONSTAR

CONSTELACION

constitucion v. Constituyente

CONSTITVIR
CONSTITVYDO
CONSTITVYENTE
CONSVEGRAR
CONSVEGRAS
CONSVEGRO

CONSVELO (CONSOLAR)

CONSVL

consulado v. ConsvL consultante v. ConsvLTAR

CONSVLTAR

consultor v. Consultar

CONSVMADO

consumar v. Consumado consumido v. Consumir 1

CONSVMIR 1, 2
CONSVNO
CONTACTO
CONTADOR 1, 2
CONTAGION

CONTAGIOSO

CONTAR

contemplacion v. Contemplar

CONTEMPLAR

contemplativo v. Contemplar contencioso v. Contender

CONTENDER

contendor v. CONTENDER

CONTENERSE

contentamiento v.contentarse

CONTENTARSE

CONTENTO (CONTENTARSE)

CONTERA

contestar v. Contestes

CONTESTES

contienda v. CONTENDER contienente v. CONTENERSE

CONTIGO

continencia v. Contenerse

CONTINENTE

contino v. Continuar

CONTINVAR

continuo v. Continuar

CONTRA
CONTRABAJO
CONTRACEDVLA
CONTRADECIR

contradicion v. Contradecir

CONTRADITAS

contraditor v. Contradecir contraditorio v. Contradecir

CONTRAFOSO CONTRAHAZER

contrahecho v. Contrahazer Contraher s. Contravenir Contralor s. Contratacion

CONTRAMINA (MINA)

contraminar v. Contramina

CONTRAPASSAR
CONTRAPESAR
CONTRAPESO
CONTRAPONER

CON	55
CONTRARIO	copista v. copia
CONTRASEÑA	COPLA
CONTRASTAR	COPLAS
CONTRASTES	СОРО
CONTRATACION	ÇOPO
contrato v. Contraher	COPON
CONTRAVANDO	COPVLA ·
CONTRAVENIR	CORAÇON
contrecho v. Contrahazer	CORADA (ASSADVRA)
contribucion v . Contribuir	CORAJE
CONTRIBVIR	corajudo v . coraje
CONTRICION	CORAL
CONTVMAZ	CORAZA (LORICA)
CONTVMELIA	CORAZNADA
contumelioso v . Contumelia	CORCEGA
CONTVRBAR	corço v . corzo
CONVALECENCIA	CORCOBA
CONVALECER	CORCOBADO
convaleciente v.Convalecencia	corcobo v . Corcobado
CONVENCER	CORCHEA
convenible v. CONVENIR	CORCHETE (ESBIRRO)
conveniencia v. CONVENIR	CORCHO
conveniente v. Convenir	CORDEL
CONVENIR	$\operatorname{cordelejo} v. \operatorname{cordel}$
CONVENTICVLO	CORDELLATE
CONVENTO	CORDERO
conventuales v . Convento	corderuna v. cordero
conversable v . Conversar	CORDIAL
conversacion v . Conversar	CORDILLERA
CONVERSAR	CORDOJO
conversion v . Convertir	CORDON
convertible v . Convertir	cordonero v . cordon
convertida v . Convertir	CORDOVA
CONVERTIR	CORDOVAN (CVERO)
convexo v . Concavo	CORDVRA
CONVVSCO	CORIA
COPA (BASTON 3; COPILLA)	CORISTA
copero, -a v. copon	ÇORITA 1, 2
COPETE (BONETE)	CORITO

COPILLA COPIA

CORMA (FVGITIVO; CEPO)

CORNADO CORNAMVSA CORNEJA CORNERINA CORNETA CORNICABRA (CVERNO) CORNICVLARIO (CVERNO) CORNIJA cornijal v. CVERNO CORNVDO (ACORRVCARSE; CABRON) cornupeta v. CVERNO CORO (DECORAR 2) COROCA CORONA 1, 2 (GORRA; GRAMA; DIADEMA) coronacion v, corona 2 coronado v. corona 2 coronario v. corona 2 coronel v. DIADEMA CORONICA coronilla v. corona 1 CORONISTA coroza v. mitra CORPORAL corporeo v. Corporal çorra v. çvrrador corragero v. CVERO CORRAL 1, 2 CORREA correcto v. Corregir corrector v. Corregir CORREDERA CORREDOR corregeria v. ÇACATIN corregidor v. corregir:

corregidor v. corregir;
GOVERNAR 1
corregimiento v. corregir
corregir
correncia v. cagar
correo v. corredor; postas
correoso v. correa
correr
correr v. cyrrador

correria v. CVRRADOR CORRERIAS correro v. Sorra correspondencia v. corregir corresponsal v. corregir corretor v, corregir corriente v. Correrias corrillo v. CORRO corrimiento v. Correr CORRO CORROMPER Corruo v. Acobrycarse corrupcion v. Corromper corrupta v. corromper CORRVPTELA corsario v. corso CORSO (CVRSO) CORTA COSA S. CORTEZA CORTABOLSAS cortador v. CORTAR cortadura v. cortabolsas cortapisa v. Cortabolsas CORTAR CORTE 1, 2 (EMPLAZAR; FABRICA) cortedad v. corta cosa CORTES (CORTE) cortesana v. corte 2 cortesania v. corte 2 cortesano v. corte 2 CORTEZA S. CORTINAL cortezon v. CORTEZA cortijo v. CORTINAL CORTINA cortinaje v. Cortina CORTINAL corto v. CORTA COSA coruas v. manta 2 CORVA corvadura v. corva corveion v. Corva

corveta v. CORVA

COTAL

corvillo v. CORVA COTEJAR cotejo v. COTEJAR CORVINA COTIDIANO CORYBANTES S. CORYPHEO COTIN CORYPHEO 8, CORIA сото 1, 2, 3 CORZO coton v. codonCOSA COSARIO (CORSO; POSTAS) COTONIA coturno v. ÇVECO ~ COSCOGITA COSCOIA (cf. COSCOXA) COVACHA covanillo v. cvezo coscoja, -o, v. coscoja; coco 2; covina v. Corvina coxear v. coxo; coxqvear COSCORRON coscoxa, -o v. GRANA; CARRASCA COXIJO coxijoso v. coxijo COSECHA COSELETE COXIN COXITRANCA COSER cosi cosa v: GRIFO; CABER; COSA COXO (COXITRANCA) COXON COSMOGRAFO COXQVEAR COSMOGRAPHIA COYVNDA S. COHOMBRILLO COYVNTVRA 8. COYVNDA COSO COZ 1, 2 (COCEADOR) COSQVILLAS cosquilloso v. cosqvillas COZER · COSTA 1, 2 COZINA 1, S. CONCENTAYNA COZINA 2, s. COZER COSTADO costal v. Costilla CRECER costanero v, cyesta CRECIDO coste v. costa 1 creciente v. CRECIDO costear v. costa 1 crecimiento v. CRECIDO COSTERO (CVESTA) credencia v. APARADOR; VASAR; COSTILLA CRECIDO credenciero v. CRECIDO COSTILLER costoso v. costa 1 CREDITO COSTRA CREER COSTRADA (CIDRA) cremor v. ALMIDON COSTREÑIR crencha v. CRENCHE COSTVMBRE CRENCHE COSTVRA (COSER) CREPVSCVLO costurera v. Coser CRESPO costuron v. Costyra CRESTA: сота 1, 2, 3 CRETA

CRIA 1, 2

criada v. criado criadillas 1, 2 (tvfo; tvrmas) criado s. criador

CRIADOR S. CRIATÚRA CRIANZA (CRIADO)

CRIAR 1, 2

CRIATURA 1, 2, 3, 4 (HECHURA)

CRIMEN 1, 2 CRIMINAL

criminoso v. Criminal

CRIN (CLIN) CRISMA

crismar v. CRISMA crismera v. CRISMA

CRISOL
CRISOLITO
CRISTAL (V

CRISTAL (VIDRIO)
cristalino v. CRISTAL
CRISTEL (cf. CLISTEL)

CRITICO CRIVA CRIVO

CROCODILO (COCODRILO)

CROMATICO CRONOGRAFIA

crucifero v. CRVZERO

crucifixo v. fijar; crvzifixo

CRVDEZAS

crudio v. crvdezas crvdo 1, 2 (crvdezas)

CRVEL
CRVELDAD
CRVGIA
CRVGIR
CRVZ

cruzado, –a v. crvzifixo cruzar v. crvzero

CRVZERO CRVZIFIXO

cu cu v. Cornydo

CVBA

cubeta v. CVBA

cubeto v. CVBA
ÇVBIA (AÇVDA)
cubierto v. CVBRIR

CVBILETE S. CVBO (IVEGO 2)

CVBO

cubre v. Alcrevite
cvbrir (gorra)
cubuxada v. Alcotan
cvca (gvsano; chvfa)

CVCARACHA CVCARRO

CVCLILLAS 1, 8. CLVECA CVCLILLAS 2, 8. CVCHILLO

CVCLILLO (CORNVDO)

CVCO

cuculos v. CAPILLA 1
cuculla v. CAPILLA 1
cucullo v. COROÇA
cucullucho v. COROÇA
cuçurra v. CAÇVRRAS
cvchar (cvcharron)
cuchara v. CVCHAR

CVCHARADA CVCHARRON

cuchilla v. CVCHILLO cuchillada v. CVCHILLO cuchillero v. CVCHILLO

CVCHILLO CVDICIA

cudicioso v. CODICIAR ÇVECO (ALCORQVE)

CVELLAR

cuellierguido v. CVELLO; EREGIR

CVELLO CVENCA 1

CVENCA 2, (CONCHA)
CVENDA (MADEXA)
CVENTA 1, 8. CVENTO
CVENTA 2, 8. CVENDA
CVENTO 8. CONTAR

cuera v. CVERO

cuera de ante, v. ANTE: BVFALO

CVERDA 1, 2

cuerdo v. cordvra; cverda 2

CVERNO (ALCVZA; ARROLLAR;

CORNVDO)

CVERO CVERPO

CVERVA

CVERVO CVESTA

CVEVA CVEVANO CVEZO

çufrible v. SVFRIR cufrimiento v. SVFRIR

cugulla v. CAPILLA 1; COROCA

CVIDAR CVITA

· cuitado v. CVITA

CVLANTRILLO (BRENCA)

CVLANTRO
CVLATA
CVLEBRA
CVLEBRILLA

CVLEBRINA (ARCABVZ) culina v. FAMILIAR

CVLPA
CVLTIVAR
CVLTO
ÇVMAQVE
ÇVMAYA

CVMBRE ÇVMILLO CVMO

çumoso v. çvmo

cumplimiento v. CVMPLIR

CVMPLIR CVNA ČVNDIR

cuneo v. CVÑA

CVÑA

cuñada v. cvñado

CVÑADO

cuño v. CVÑA

CVRA

çura v. ÇORITA curable v. cvrar curadillo v. cvrar

CVRALLE

çurana v. ÇORITA

CVRAR

curato v. cvra çurcidera v. svrzır çurcidor v. çvrcır çurcidura v. çvrcır

ÇVRCIR

ÇVRDO (EZQVERRA)

CVREÑA CVRIA

curial v. CVRIA

curiosidad v. cvrioso

CVRIOSO ÇVRRA ÇVRRADOR ÇVRRANA

çurrapa v. ÇVRRARSE

ÇVRRARSE ÇVRRIAGA

cursar v. cvrso cursario v. cosario cursillo v. cvrso

CVRSO

cursor v. CVRSO

curtago v. HACA; FACA curtidor v. CVRTIR 1

CVRTIR 1

CVRTIR 2, err. por CVTIR

curucho v. coroça cutanillo v. cytano

ÇVTANO CVTIO

cutir v. cvrtir 2 cuxa v. coxin cuxo v. coxin

CVYCHIguyzo, -a, v. chyzonCHELVA CVZCO cheras v. LAMPARON CHERRION CVZIO cherub v. CHERVBIN Ch CHERVBIN S. CHIRRIAR CHAÇA CHACOTA chia v. BECA; HIGO chibital v, chivo 1 CHAFALLO chibitero v, chivo 1 CHAMARRA (CAMARRO) CHAMELOTE (CAMELOTE) CHICO 8, CHICHON chamorra v. Gorra; Camorra CHICORIA S. CHICO CHAMORRAR (CAMARRO) (CAMAROIA) chamorro v. Chamorrar CHICHA CHICHARRA (CIGARRA) CHAMVSCAR chamusquina v. Chamuscar chicharron v. CHICHA CHANCILLER (CANCILLER) CHICHON CHANCILLERIA (CANCEL) chifla v. ESPADILLA; CHIFLAR CHANCLETAS (ÇANCO) CHIFLAR CHANÇONETA (CANTAR) chiffido v. CHIFLAR chancha v. CHARLATAN CHILIADAS chantre v. CAPISCOL CHILINDRON chilo v. DIGERIR chantria v. Capiscolia CHAPA CHILLA chapar v. CHAPA CHILLAR chapear v. CHAPA chillido v. CHILLAR chapelo v. CAPELO 1 chillon v, CHILLA CHAPEO (CAPELO) CHIMENEA CHAPERIA v. CHAPA CHIMERA chaperon v. CHAPEO CHINA CHINA

CHAPIN

chapinaço v. Chapin

chapiron v. CHAPEO; CAPIROTE

CHAPITEL

chapucero v. CHAPA character v. CARATER

CHARCO

charlar v, charlatan

CHARLATAN

charquillo v. Charco chata v. Chaton CHATON (TACHON)

CHAVACANO CHAVES

CHINCHE chinchorreria v. CHINCORRERO CHINCHORRERO S. CHINCILLA

CHINELA CHIPIONA CHIRIMIA CHIRIVIA

CHINCILLA

CHIRON (ÇVRRIAGA) chironeo v. CHIRON CHIRRIAR S. CHIVO 1

CHIRRICHOTE

chirrion v. Cherrion

D

chirugia v. CHIRON chirujano v. CHIRON CHISME chismeria v. CHISME chismoso v. Chisme CHISPA CHISTAR S. CHITA CHISTE CHITA CHITON chivetero v. CABRITO; CHIVO 2 CHIVO 1, s. CHERRION (CABRITO) chivo 2 chiz v. CHINCHE choa v. GRAJO CHOÇA chocar v. CHOOVE CHOCARRERO CHOCLAR CHOCLON СНОСНО СНОРО CHOQVE choqueçuela v. CHVECA chorrear v. Chorro CHORRO chotar v. сното сното (тосно) chria v. CRIA 1 CHRISTIANAR S. CHRISTIANO CHRISTIANISMO 8. CHRISTIANAR CHRISTIANISSIMO S. CHRISTIA-NISMO CHRISTIANO S. CHRISTO 1 CHRISTIANO VIEJO S. CHRISTIA-NISSIMO CHRISTO 1, S. CRISMA CHRISTO 2 chromatico v. CROMATICO CHRONICA chronografia v. CRONOGRAFIA

chrysocola v. ATINCAR

chucero v. chycho chuçon v. zvyça chucheria v. снусно CHVCHO CHVECA (PELOTA) CHVFA (CVCA) CHVFETA CHVLLA CHVPAR CHVRIZO CHVRRE CHVRVMBELA CHVSMA CHVZON D

DAÇA DACIA DACIO dactilo v. DATIL DADIVA (DAR) dadivoso v. dar DADO dador v. DAR DAGA DAGES DAIFA DAIMEL DALMACIA DALMATICA DALLE DAMA DAMASCENAS damasco v. Dama DAMASQVINO dameria v. DAMA DANÇA (CORCOBA) DANCA DE ESPADAS dança Pirricha v. BOLTEAR dañador v.DAÑO dañar (se) v. daño

dañino v. daño

DAÑO

dañoso v. Daño

DAPHNE DAR

Dille

DARAGONTIA DARAZVTAN DARDANO

dardillo v. dardo

DARDO

DARIO

DAROCA DARRO

data v. fecha

DATHEDRALITIOS (err. por CA-

THEDRALITIOS) S. CATEDRA-

TICO

DATIL

dato de perro v. CANINA

daxza v. daça

DE

DE AQVI ADELANTE dean v. DECANO deanato v. DECANO

DEBALDE

DEBATE (BATIR 1)
DEBATIR (BATIR 1)

DEBAXO

DEBIL

debilidad v. DEBIL debilitado v. DEBIL

deble v. TREFE

DE BRVZOS

DECADAS (ANALES) decanato v. DECANO

DECANO

decena v. DEZENO

decencia v. DECENTE

decendencia v. DECENDER

DECENDER

decendiente v. DECENDER decendimiento v. DECENDER

DECENSO

DECENTAR (ENCENTAR)

DECENTE

DECERNIR

DECIR (DICHOSO)

DECISION
DECLAMAR
DECLARACION

declarante v. DECLARACION

DECLARAR

declinable v. DECLINAR

DECLINAR

DECORAR 1, 2 (TOMAR)

DECRETO

decretorio v. CRITICO

DECURION

DECHADO (MVESTRA)

DEDALO DEDALO

dedicacion v. DEDICAR

DEDICAR
DEDO (CODO)
deesa v. DEHESA
DEFALCAR (FALCAR)

DEFENDER

defesa v. Dehesa

DEFETO

defetuoso v. Defeto

DEFORME

deformidad v. Deforme

DEFVNTO DEGENERAR

degollada v. DANÇA DE ESPADAS;

DEGOLLAR
DEGOLLAR
DEGRADAR

DEHESA

dehesero v. Dehesa

DEIANIRA DEIDAD

dejarretar v. Desjarretar

DEL

DELDERdemostracion v. Demostrar DELANTAL DEMOSTRAR DELANTE demudacion v. Demudar DELANTERA delantero v. DELANTERA DEMVDAR DENARIO 1, 2 DELATAR DENEGAR DELATE denegrido v. NEGRA DELEGADO DELEGAR DENIA deleitable v. DELEITE denodado v, denvedo deleitar(se) v. DELEITE DENOSTAR S. DENTERA DELETTE (HONESTO) deleitoso v. DELEITE DENSO DELETREAR (LETRA) dentadura v. Dentelladas DENTAL S. DENVEDO DELEZNABLE DELFIN DENTELLADAS S. DIENTE delfinato v. DELFIN DENTERA (DENTELLADAS) DELIA DENTON deliberacion v. DELIBERAR DENTRO DELIBERAR DENVEDO DELICADO denues to v. Denostar; Honesto DELICIAS DENVNCIAR delicioso v. DELICIAS DEÑARSE delinquente v. DELITO DEPARTIR delinquir v. DELITO DEPONER (DEPVESTO) DELIRAR deposicion v. Deponer delirio v. DELIBAR DEPOSITAR. DELITO DEPOSITARIO DELOS DEPOSITO depravacion v. Depravar DEMANDA DEMANDAR DEPRAVAR DEMARCACION DEPVESTO derechero v. DERECHO DEMAS DEMASIA DERECHO derechura v. DERECHO DEMASIADO DEMEDIAR DERIVAR derivativos v. Derivar DEMOCRACIA democratia v. ARISTOCRATIA DEROGAR

DERRABAR

DERRAMAR

DERRAMAS

DERRENGAR 1

derramamiento v. DERRAMAR

DEMOLER S. DESMOCHAR demoniaco v. DEMONIO DEMONIO DEMOSTENES

DEMOCRITO

64 DERDES DERRENGAR 2, S. RENQVEAR DESAGVISADO (GVISADO; AGVISADO) DERRETIR DESAHVCIAR (FIVCIA) DERRETIRSE DERRIBAR DESAIRADO DERROCAR (ROQVE) DESALABRAR desalado v. Ala DERROTA DES-DESALAR S. DESABRIRSE desabahado v. вано DESALARSE desabahamiento v. Desabahar DESALFORJADO (ALFORIA) DESABAHAR (BAHO) DESALFORJAR desaliñado v. ALIÑAR DESABEZAR DESABOLLAR DESALIÑAR desabotonar v. Abotonarse desaliño v. Desaliñar; Aliñar DESABRIDO (SABIO) DESALMADO (ALMA) DESABRIGAR DESALVARDAR desabrimiento v. DESABRIDO; DESAMAR desamor v, desamar DESABRIRSE desabrir v. DESABRIDO desamorado v. DESAMAR DESABRIRSE S. DESTRONCAR desamparados v. AMPARAR desabrochar v. Broca DESAMPARAR (AMPARAR) DESACATAR (ACATAR; CATAR) DESANDAR desacato v. ACATAR DESANGRAR DESACOMODAR desanimar v. ANIMAL desacomodarse v. comodo DESAÑVDAR desacompañamiento v. desa-DESAPERCIBIDO COMPAÑAR DESAPIADADO DESACOMPAÑAR DESAPRISIONAR DESACOSTVMBRARSE DESAPROVECHADO (PROVECHO; APROVECHAR) DESAFIAR desafio v. DESAFIAR DESAPVNTAR (DEPVNTAR 2) desaforado v. Desafvero; DESARMAR FVERO DESARRAIGAR (ARRAYGAR) DESAFVERO (FVERO) DESARRAPADO desarrimarse v. ARRIMAR . desafuziar v. fyzia (cf. desahydesarropar v. ARROPARSE CIAR) desaseado v. Aseo DESAGRADAR DESASIR

DESAGRADECER DESAGRADO desagraviar(se) v. Gravedesaguadero v. AGVAR

desaguar v. AGVAR

desatacar v. ATACAR DESATAPAR

DESASTRE

DESASTRADO (ASTROSO)

desataviado v. ATAVIAR desatentado v. TIENTO 1 desatinado v. ATINAR

DESATINAR

desatino v. Atinar

desauciar v. fivcia; desahvciar

DESAVENIRSE

DESAVITVAR S. DESABEZAR

DESAYVDAR (AYVDA)

desayunarse v. AYVNO desbabar v. BABA

desbalixar v. BALIXA

desbarahustar v. BARAHVSTE

DESBARATAR DESBARBADO

DESBARRAR (BARRA)
DESBASTAR (BASTA)
DESBOCADO (BOCA)
desbonetado v. BONETE

DESBYCHAR

DESCABEÇAR (CABEZON)

DESCABELLADO DESCABVLLIRSE

descaderado v. CADERA descaecer v. CAIDA

descaecimiento v. CAIDA

descalabradura v. descalabrar descalabrar (calabriada)

descalçar v. CALÇADOR

DESCALÇO 1, s. CALÇADOR DESCALÇO 2 (CAPATO)

descalyorer a DESCALA

descalverar v. DESCALABRAR descaminado v. CAMINO

DESCAMINAR

DESCANSAR (CANSADO)

descanso v. Descansar;

CANSADO

descanterar v. CANTON descantillar v. CANTON

DESCAPILLAR

descarado v. DESCARARSE

DESCARARSE (CARA 3)

descargadero v. Descargar

DESCARGAR (CARGO)

descargo v. Descargar; cargo

DESCARNAR

 ${\tt DESCARRIADO}$

descarriar v. descarriado descarrillar (carrillo)

DESCARTARSE V. CARTA

descarte v. CARTA

 ${\tt DESCASAR}$

DESCASCAR

DESCAVALGAR

descendir v. DECENDER

DESCEÑIR (CEÑIR)

descercador v. Descercar

DESCERCAR (CERCAR)

DESCERRAJAR

descervigado v. Cerviz

DESCERVIGAR

descifrar v. CIFRAR

descinta v. CINTA

desclamar v. CLAMOR

DESCLAVAR

descocotar v. COCOTE

descogotado v. cocote

DESCOGOTAR

DESCOLGAR (COLGAR 2)
DESCOLORIDO (COLORADO)
descollado v. CVELLO

descollamiento v. CVELLO

DESCOMEDIDO

descomedimiento v. COMEDIDO descomedirse v. COMEDIDO descompasado v. COMPASAR

DESCOMPONER

descompostura v. Descomponer

descompuesto v. Componer

DESCOMVLGAR

DESCOMVNAL

descomunion v. DESCOMVLGAR desconcertado v. CONCERTAR

DESCONCERTAR desconfiado v. CONFIAR DESCONFIAR DESCONFORMAR DESCONOCER desconocido v. CONOCIMIENTO desconocimiento v, desconocer DESCONSOLAR desconsuelo v. DESCONSOLAR; CONSOLAR DESCONTAR (CONTAR) descontentarse v, contentarse desconvenible v. DESCONVENIR DESCONVENIR desconversable v. DESCONVER-SAR; CONVERSAR DESCONVERSAR

DESCORAZNADO descoraznamiento v. DESCORAZNADO descorchador v, descorcha DESCORCHAR (CORCHO) descornar v. CVERNO

descortes v. corte 2 DESCORTEZAR (CORTEZA) DESCOSER (COSER)

descoyuntar v. Coyvntvra

DESCREER

descreido v. CARA 3; DESCREER

DESCREVIR

descripcion v. Descrevir descubrimiento v. Descybria

DESCUBRIR

descubrir la cabeza v. GORRA

DESCVENTO (DESCONTAR)

DESCVIDAR DESCYLPAR

descuydo v. DESCVIDAR

DESDE DESDEN

DESDENTADO

desdentar v, desdentado

desdeñable v. DESDEN desdeñar v. DESDEN desdeño v. DESDEN desdeñoso v. Desden $\operatorname{desdezir}(\operatorname{se}) v. \operatorname{desdezir}$ DESDICHA desdichado v. DESDICHA

DESDORAR

desdorarse v. Dorar

DESEAR

DESECHA (DESHACERSE)

DESECHAR DESEMBAINAR

DESEMBARAÇAR (EMBARAÇAS) desembarcadero v. EMBARCAR desembargador v. EMBARGAR desembargar v. EMBARGAR desembargo v. EMBARGAR desembaynar v. VAYNAS DESEMBOCAR (BOCA) desembolsar v. BOLSA; EMBOLSAR

desemboltura v. Desembolver;

BOLVER

DESEMBOLVER (BOLVER) desembolverse v. Bolver DESEMBRAÇAR (BRAÇO) DESEMBRAVECERSE DESEMBRIAGARSE

DESEMBUCHAR (DESBUCHAR; BVCHE)

desempachar v. DESEMBUCHAR DESEMPACHO

DESEMPALAGAR

DESEMPAREJAR (DESPAREJAR) desempedrador v. DESEMPEDRAR DESEMPEDRAR (EMPEDRADO)

DESEMPEGAR DESEMPEÑAR DESEMPEREZAR

DESEMPOLVORAR DESEMPVLGAR

desenalvardar v. DESALVARDAR

DESENCABESTRAR

DESENCADENAR

DESENCANTAR

DESENCAPOTAR

DESENCASAR

desencavalgar v. DESCAVALGAR;

ENCAVALGAR

DESENCAXAR (ENCAXAR)
desencerrar v. CERRAR
desencogerse v. COGER
DESENCONARSE
DESENFADARSE

DESENFARDELAR
DESENFRENAR (FRENO)
DESENGAÑAR

desengaño v. desengaño

DESENGRVDAR
DESENHETRAR (BEHETRIA)
desenlavonarse v. DESLAVO-

NARSE DESENLAZAR

desenmarañar v. MARAÑA desenguadernado v.

ENQVADERNAR

DESENQVADERNAR (QVADERNAS)

DESENREDAR
DESENSAÑAR
DESENSEÑAR
DESENTERRAR
DESENTONADO
DESENTONAR

DESENTRAÑAR (ENTRAÑAS)

deseos v. desear desesperado desesperar desfalcar desfallecer

desfavor v. DESFAVORECER DESFAVORECER (DISFAVOR;

FAVORABLE)
desfaxado v. FAXAR
DESFIGURAR

DESFLAQVECER desflemar v. FLEMA

DESFLOCAR

DESFLORAR (FLOR)

DESFOGAR

DESFRUTAR (FRUTA)
desgajadura v. DESGAJAR

DESGAJAR (GAJO)

desgalgadero v. GALGA 2 desgalgado v. GALGO desgalgarse v. GALGA 2 DESGANARSE (GANA) desgañirse v. GAÑIR DESGARRAR (GARRA)

desgarro v. desgarrar; garra desgarron v. desgarrar; garra

DESGAYRE

desgaznatarse v. Graznar 1 desgovernar (Governar 2)

DESGRACIA

desgraciado v. desgracia desgraciarse v. desgracia desgreñada v. cabellera desgreñar (greña)

desguarnecer v. GVARNECER

DESGVSTAR (GVSTAR) desgusto v. DESGVSTAR DESHARRAPADO (HARAPO)

DESHAZER

DESHAZERSE (HAZER 2) deshebrar v. HEBRA

DESHEREDAR

DESHERRAR (HIERRO 1)
DESHILAR (HILANDERA)

DESHOJAR

deshollar v. HOLLEJO deshollinar v. HOLLIN

deshonestidad v. DESONESTO;

HONESTO

deshonesto v. Honesto desiderable v. Desear

DESIERTO

DESIGVAL (IGVAL)

DESJARRETAR

DESLAVADO (LAVAR)

deslavamiento v. Deslavado

DESLAYDADO

deslaydor v. Deslaydado

DESLEAL

deslealtad v. Desleal

DESLENGVADO (LENGVA 2)

DESLEYR

desligar v. lisvra

DESLIGAR DESLINDAR

deslizadero v. LISVRA DESLIZAR (LISVRA)

DESLOMAR

deslomarse v. Lomo deslucido (Luz)

DESLVMBRADO

DESLYMBRAMIENTO

DESLVMBRAR

deslumbrarse v. ALVMBRAR

desluzido v. LVZ

desmacolar v. Desmazolado

DESMALLAR (MALLA)

desmamparar v. MANECILLAS

DESMANDADO

DESMANDARSE (DESMANDADO)

desmaneada v. DESMANEARSE

DESMANEARSE

DESMANOTADO (MANOTADA;

AMAÑARSE)

DESMANTELAR

DESMARAÑAR

DESMARRIDO

DESMAYARSE

DESMAYO 1

DESMAYO 2, s. MAYA

DESMAZALADO

DESMEDRAR

DESMEDRO

DESMELENADO

desmembracion v. Desmembrar

DESMEMBRAR

DESMEMORIADO

DESMENGVAR

DESMENTIR

DESMENVZAR

DESMERECER

DESMESVRARSE

DESMIGAJAR

DESMOCHAR (MOCHO)

desmoler v. Demoler

DESMONTAR (MONTON)

desmotadera v. DESMOTAR

DESMOTAR (MOTAS)

desnarigado v. NARIZ

DESNARIGAR

DESNATAR (NATAS)

DESNATVRALIZARSE

DESNVDAR

DESOBEDECER

DESOBLIGAR

DESOCVPAR (OCVPAR)

DESOLAR

DESONESTO

desolladamente v. DESOLLAR

DESOLLAR (HOLLEJO)

desollinar v. HOLLIN

DESONRA

desorden v. Desordenar

DESORDENAR

DESOVAR (GVEVO)

despachador v. DESPACHAR

DESPACHAR

despacho v. DESPACHAR

DESPAJAR

DESPALMAR

DESPAMPANAR

DESPAMPLONAR S. DESPLAZER

desparatado v. DISPARATE

DESPARCIR DESPILFARRADO despinçadera v. motas; pinzas DESPARECER DESPAREJAR despinçar v. motas; pinzas DESPARPAJAR DESPINTAR (PINTAR) despinzar v. PINZAS DESPARRAMAR DESPARTIR DESPIOJAR DESPAVESAR DESPLAZER DESPAVILADERAS (PAVILO) DESPLEGAR despavilador v. DESPAVILADERAS desplomado v, plomo despavilar v. DESPAVESAR; DESPLVMAR PAVILO DESPOBLADO despavorido v. PAVOR DESPOBLAR DESPEARSE DESPOJAR . despeçonarse v. PEÇON despojo v. Despojar despechado v. APECHYGAR despolvorar v. Desempolvorar DESPECHO (APECHYGAR) DESPOLVOREAR (POLVOS) desposada v. Esposas DESPECHYGAR DESPEDAZAR (PEDACO) desposaja v. desposar despedida v. DESPEDIR DESPOSAR desposorios v. Desposar DESPEDIR despegamiento v. Despegar despotico v. DESPOTO DESPEGAR DESPOTO despego v. DESPEGAR despreciar v. DESPRECIO DESPEJAR DESPRECIO DESPELOTADO DESPVES despelotar v. DESPELOTADO DESPVNTAR 1, 2 DESPELVZARSE desquajarse v. QVAJADA DESQVARTIZAR

despelotar v. despelotado
despelvzarse
despenar
despender
despensas v. despender
despensero v. despender
despeñadero v. despeñarse

DESPEÑAR

DESPEÑARSE

DESPEPITADO (PEPITA)

despepitarse v. DESPEPITADO;

PEPITA

DESPERDICIAR

DESPEREZARSE desperezo v. DESPEREZARSE DESPERTADOR

DESPERTAR

DESTAJAR
destajero v. DESTAJAR
DESTAJO
DESTAPAR

DESSERVIR

DESQUAXADO

DESQVAXAR

DESREGLARSE

DESQVICIAR (QVICIO)

desreglador v. Regla

desrostrarse v. Rostro desservicio v. Desservir

DESQVIXARAR (QVIXADA)

desquaxamiento v. Desquaxado

DESTAZAR

DESTECHAR

DESTEMPLAR

DESTERRAR

DESTETAR (TETA)

destierro v. DESTERRAR

destilacion v. DISTILATORIO

DESTINAR destino v. DESTINAR

DESTORCER DESTRAL

destralexa v. Destral .

DESTRAVAR DESTREZA

destripa v. TRIPERIA destripar v. TRIPAS

DESTROCAR

DESTRON (ADESTRAR)

DESTRONCAR 8. DESREGLARSE

(TRONCO)
DESTROZAR
DESTRVIR
DESVÑIR
DESVSAR
DESVAN
DESVANECER

desvarar v. DEVARAR

DESVARIAR

DESVELAR (VELA 2)

DESVENTVRA

desvergonçado v. Vergvença desvergonçarse v. desver-

GVENÇA DESVERGVENÇA desviaos v. AVAOS

DESVIAR

desvio v. Desviar; Viaje

DESVIRGAR

desvirtuado v. virtvoso

DETENER

detenimiento v. DETENER deterioración v. DETERIORAR

DETERIORAR

determinacion v. DETERMINAR

DETERMINAR
DETRAS
DETRAVES
DETRIMIENTO

DEVCALION DEVDA

deudo v. DEVDA deudor v. DEVDA DEVTERONOMIO

devanadera v. DEVANAR

DEVANAR DEVANEAR

DEVANTAL (DELANTAL)
DEVARAR 8. DESVANECER

(VARAR)

devengar v. FIDALGO 3

DEVER
DEVIEDO
DEVIESO

devisa v. DIVISA; DIVISAR

devisero v. DIVISAR

DEVOTAS DEVOTO

dexacion v. DEXAR

DEXAR

DEXEMPLAR (EXEMPLO)

DEXENXO (DECENSO; CATARRO)

DEXO DEZENO

dezidor v. DECIR

dezima v. pezimo

DEZIMO

dezmar v. DEZMERA

DEZMERA

dezmero v. DEZMERA; PVERTOS

DIA

dia egypciaco v. AZIAGO

DIA- (prefijo)

DIABLO

diablura v . DIABLO	DIETA 1, 2, 3
DIACITRON S. DIAZ	DIEZ
diaconato v. DIACONO	diezmo v . DEZMERA; DIEZ
DIACONO	DIFERIR
DIADEMA	DIFICIL
diademato v . DIADEMA	dificultar v. DIFICIL
DIAERESIS 8. DENTELLADAS	dificultoso v . DIFICIL
DIAFANO	difinition v . DIFINIR
DIAFRAGMA	difinido v . difinidor
diafurfuris v . ESTOCAFRIS	DIFINIDOR
DIAGARGANTA	DIFINIR
Diago v. diego	difinitivo v . DIFINIR
DIALECTICA	DIFVNTO
dialectico v . DIALECTICA	DIFVSO
DIALECTO	DIGERIR
DIALOGISMO	digestion v . DIGERIR; INDIGESTO
DIALOGO	DIGESTOS
DIALTEA (MALVAVISCO)	DIGNARSE
DIAMANTE	DIGNIDAD
DIAMETRO	DIGNO
DIAQVILON	DIGRESION
DIARIO S. DIA	dilacion v . DILATAR
DIARREA	DILATAR
DIAZ	dilection v . DILECTO
dibuxador v. DIBVXAR	DILECTO

dibuxador v. dibvxar
dibvxar (box)
dibuxo v. dibvxar; box
dicernir

DICIPLINA
diciplinado v. DICIPLINA
DICIPLINARSE
DICHA 1, s. DECIR

DICHA 2

DICHO (DECIR)
DICHOSO 1, 8. DICHA 1

DICHOSO 2 DIDIMO

DIECES 8. DIEZ

DIEGO DIENTE DIESTRA

DIESTRO (DIESTRA)

DILIGENCIA diligenciero v. DILIGENCIA diligente v. DILIGENCIA

DILVVIO

DILEMA

diminucion v. DIMINVIR

DIMINVIR

diminuto v. DIMINVIR

DIMISORIAS DINAMARCHA DINERO DINOSIS

diocesaneo v. DIOCESIS

DIOCESIS DIONISIO DIOS

dipsaco v. Carda

diputacion v. DIPVTAR diputado v. DIPVTAR

DIPVTAR
DIQVES
DIS---

disanto v. DIA

disbarate v. desbaratar discernir (cerner) discipulo disco

DISCOLO
DISCORDAR
DISCORDIA
DISCRECION

DISCVLPA

DISCRETO (DISCERNIR)

DISCVRRIR
DISCVRSO (CVRSO)

DISENSION S. DISSENTIR

DISENTERIA DISFAMAR DISFAVOR

disfigurarse v. figura disforme (formar)

disformidad v. disforme;

FORMAR

DISFRAZ (DISFRAZARSE;

FRAÇADA) DISFRAZARSE

disimulo v. DISSIMVLADAMENTE

DISLATE DISMINVIR

disonar v. consonar disparar (disparate)

DISPARATE (DISLATE) dispendio v. DISSIPAR

DISPENSABLE DISPENSACION DISPENSAR DISPONER

disposicion v. DISPONER

DISPVTA

DISPVTABLE.
DISPVTAR
DISSENTIR

DISSIMVLADAMENTE

DISSIMVLAR

dissipador v. dissipar

DISSIPAR
DISSOLVCION
DISSOLVER

dissoluto v. dissolvcion

DISSONANCIA

dissonante v. DISSONAR

DISSONAR

distante v. DISTAR

DISTAR

distilacion v. DISTILATORIO

DISTILAR
DISTILATORIO
DISTINCION
DISTINGVIR

distinto v. DISTINGVIR distribucion v. DISTRIBVIR

DISTRIBVIR

distribuydor v. distribuir

DISTRITO DITADO

DITAMO (CABRA)

DIVRETICO

diurnal v. DIVRNO; DIARIO

DIVRNO (DIARIO) diversidad v. DIVERSO

DIVERSO

DIVERSORIO (MESON)

DIVERTICVLO
DIVERTIMIENTO
DIVERTIRSE
DIVIDIDO
DIVIDIR
DIVIESO
DIVINIDAD

DIVINO (DIVINIDAD)

DIVISA

dominica v. DOMINGO DIVISAR 1, s. DEVIESO DIVISAR 2, s. DIVISAR dominico v. SANTO DOMINGO divisible v. DIVIDIR DOMINIO DIVORCIO S. DIVERTIMIENTO domino v. Don 1 DON 1, 2, 3 DIVVLGAR don de Dios v. CELIDONIA DIX DIZQVE DONACION DOBAR S. DOBLAS ZAHENES DONADO DOBLA DONAIRE dobladilla v. Doblon DONATIVO donatorio v. Donativo DOBLADO DOBLAS ZAHENES S. DOBLA DONCAS DOBLE DONCELLA S. DONZEL DONCELLVECAS DOBLEGARSE DOBLERIA Don Domingo v. Domingvillo doblez v. DOBLADO DONOSO doblo v, poble DONQVES DOBLON (DOBLA) DONZEL S. DONCAS DORADA (ORADA) DOCIL docilidad v. DOCIL DORADILLA doctor v. fisico; MEDICO DORAR dormida v. Dormir 2 DOCTRINA dormilon v. dormir 2 DOGAL DORMIR 1, 2 DOGMA dormitar v. dormir 2 dogmatista v. Dogma

dogmatizante v. Dogma dolencia v. DOLERSE; ADOLECER

DOLERSE S. DOLOR

doliente v. DOLERSE; ADOLECER DOLO

DOLOR dolorido v. Dolerse

domador v. Domar DOMAR.

domesticarse v, domestico

DOMESTICO

domestiquez v. Domestico

DOMINACION DOMINACIONES DOMINGO

dominguero v. DOMINGO

DOMINGVILLO

dormitorio v. DORMIR 2

DORNAJO

dornillo v. Dornajo

DOROTEO DOS DOSEL DOSIS

dotacion v. Dote dotal v. Dote dotar v. Dote

DOTE DOZE

dozena v. Doze dozenal v. Doze DOZIENTOS DRACHMA DRAGON

DRAGONERA EBRO

DRAGONTEA (ÇVMILLO) ECCLESIASTES

dragontia v. DARAGONTIA ECCO
DRAMA ECEPTO
DRASGO ECEPTVADO
DROMEDARIO (CAMELLO) ECEPTVAR

DROMEDARIO (CAMELLO) ECEPTVAR
DROMO ECIJA

DRVIDAS ECLESIASTICO
DRYADES ECLIPSE
DVAR ECLIPTICA
dubda v. DUDA ECVMENICO

DVCADO echacuervo v. CVERVO
DVCHO ECHADIZOS S. ECHADO
DVDA ECHADO S. ECHAR

dudoso v. DVDA ECHAR s. ECEPTVADO duecho v. DVCHO; CONDVCHO echenas v. REMORA

DVELO 1, 2 echo v. ECCO
DVENDE EDAD

DVEÑA EDICTOS edificador v. EDIFICIO

DVEÑO EDIFICAR
DVERO EDIFICIO
DVLCE EDIL

DVLÇOR efe v. BESVGVETE

DVLIA EFECTO
DVQVE EFECTVAR

DVQVESA EFEMERIDES (ANALES)

dura v. TVRAR efesio v. EFESO durable v. DVRAR EFESO

 durable v. DVRAR
 EFESO

 duracion v. DVRAR
 EFETA

 DVRAR
 EFIMERA

DVRAZNOEGIDIOdureta v. DORNAJOEGLOGAdureza v. DVRAREGREGIO

DVRMIENTE egypciaco v. AZIAGO

DVRO EILA EL ELADA

E ELAR
E ELCHE 1, 2
EBANO ELDA

EBORA ELEBORO

ELECCION S. ELEGIR electo v. ELECCION elector v. ELECCION ELECTRO (ALAMBRE; ALAMO;

AMBAR)

electuario v. LETVARIO

ELECHO ELEFANCIA ELEFANTE ELEGANCIA ELEGIA

elegiaco v. ELEGIA

ELEGIR

elemental v. Elemento

ELEMENTO ELENA ELENCO (PERLA)

elencho v. ALJOFAR; ELENCO elevacion v, elevar

ELEVAR

ELEYSON (KYRIE ELEYSON) elichryso v. AMARANTO

ELITROPIA

Elmo v, erasmo 1

ELNA

ELOQVENCIA

eloquente v. ELOQVENCIA

ELVIRA ella v. EL ello v. EL EMAFRODITO

EMANAR S. MANAR

EMANCIPAR

embaçar v. Color Baça

EMBAIR

embalar v. BALA embalixar v. BALIXA

EMBARAÇAR

embaraço v. Embaraçár embaraçoso v. Embaraçar EMBARARSE S. ENTVRBIAR EMBARBASCAR S. EMBARRAR 2 embarcacion v. Embarcar embarcadero v. EMBARCAR

EMBARCAR EMBARGAR

embargo v. Embargar

EMBARNIZAR

EMBARRAR 1, S. BARRO

EMBARRAR 2

embasador v. Envasar EMBATE (BATIR 2) EMBAVCAR S. EMBAIR EMBAVLAR (BAVL)

EMBAXADA

EMBAXADOR (BESAR)

embaydor v. Embair; ivego 2 embaymiento v. Embair embaynar v. VAYNAS

EMBAZAR S. EMBAVLAR embeber v. Beber 2 embelar v. ENTOLDAR

embeleco v. EMBELESADO; ENVE-

LECO; VELEÑO EMBELESADO (VELEÑO)

EMBELESAR EMBEODAR

EMBETVNAR S. BETVN

EMBEVECER EMBEVECIDO EMBIAR

EMBIDAR 1, 2 EMBIDIA EMBIDIADO

embidiar v, Embidiado EMBIDIOSO (EMBIDIA) embion v. Embiar EMBIVDAR 1, S. BIVDA

EMBIVDAR 2 EMBLANQVECER

EMBLEMA EMBOLBER

EMBOLSAR (BOLSA) EMBOLTORIO (BOLVER) embolver v. Bolver emboque v. Toqve emborracharse (borracho)

emboscada v. Bosqve;

EMBOSCARSE

EMBOSCARSE (BOSQVE)
EMBOTAR(SE) (BOTO 1)
EMBOTIJAR(SE) (BOTIJA)

EMBOVARSE EMBOVECERSE

embraçar v. Braço 4 EMBRAVECERSE (BRAVO) embregarse v. BREGA

EMBRIAGARSE EMBRION EMBVDO

embuelto v. Bolver

EMBVSTE

embustero v. Embvste embutido v. Embvtir; Emblema

EMBVTIR EMELGA

emendacion v. EMENDAR EMENDAR s. ENMASCARARSE emendarse v. EMIENDA EMIENDA (EMENDAR)

EMISFERIO EMPACHAR EMPACHARSE

empacho v. EMPACHAR;

EMPACHARSE EMPADRONAR EMPALAGARSE EMPALAR

EMPALIADA (COLGAR 2) empaliar v. EMPALIADA;

COLGAR 2
EMPALIZADA

empanada v. EMPANAR 1, 2

EMPANAR 1

EMPANAR 2, 8. PANIAGVA

EMPAPAR

empapelar v. PAPELES

EMPAREJAR

emparentar v. PARIENTE

EMPAVESADA 1

EMPAVESADA 2, S. PAVES

EMPECER
EMPEDERNIRSE
EMPEDRADO

empedrador v. EMPEDRADO

EMPEDRAR EMPEGAR EMPEINE

EMPELLON (IMPELER)

EMPEÑADO EMPEÑAR EMPEORAR

empeorarse v. Peor

EMPERADOR
EMPERATRIZ
EMPEREZAR
EMPERO
EMPERRARSE
EMPHITEOSI

emphiteotico v. EMPHITEOSI emphiteusis v. AMORTIZAR emphyteota v. EMPHITEOSI

EMPICAR

EMPINAR(SE) (PINA)
EMPIOLAR (PIGVELAS)
EMPIRICO (ESPERIENCIA)
emplaçar v. CITAR; PLAÇA

EMPLASTAR

emplasto v. Emplastar

EMPLAZADOR
EMPLAZAMIENTO
EMPLAZAR (CITAR)

EMPLEAR

empleo v. EMPLEAR EMPLYMAR (PLVMA 2)

EMPOBRECER

EMPOÇAR (POÇO)
EMPOLLAR (POLLO)
EMPONÇOÑAR (PONÇOÑA)

EMPRENDER EMPRENTA EMPREÑAR

empreñarse v. PREÑADA empresa v. EMPRENDER

EMPRESTADO EMPRESTAR

emprestito v. EMPRESTADO;

PRESTAR EMPRINGAR EMPVJAR

empujon v. Empvjar Empvlgveras (cverno) empuñadura v. Empvñar

EMPVÑAR
EMPVRIAS
EMVLO
EN

enagenacion v. AGENO ENAGENAR (AGENO) ENALBARDAR (ALBARDA) ENALMAGRADO (IVDIO) ENALMAGRAR (ALMAGRE;

ESTREMADVRA)

ENAMORADO ENAMORAR ENAMORARSE

ENANO
ENARCAR
ENARMONARSE

enbelesado v. ENVELECO encabeçonamiento v. CABEÇA ebcabeçonar v. CABEZON encabelladura v. CABELLERA

ENCABESTRAR (CABESTRO) encadenado v. CADENA

ENCADENAR

encalabriado v. CALABRIADA

ENCALABRINAR

ENCALAR (CAL)
ENCALVECER
encallar v. QVILLA
ENCALLARSE

ENCALLECER

ENCAMARAR (CONSEIO DE

CAMARA)

ençamarrado v. ÇAMARRO encambronado v. ENCAMBRO-

NARSE

ENCAMBRONARSE

ENCAMINAR

ENCAMISADA (CAMISA)

encandiladera v. ENCANDILAR encandiladora v. ENCANDILAR ENCANDILAR S. CANDELA ENCANECER (CANA) encantador v. ENCANTAR

encantamiento v. ENCANTAR

ENCANTAR

encante v. ALMONEDA

encañado v. Encañar; caña encañadura v. Encañar; caña

ENCAÑAR (CAÑO) ENCAÑONAR ENCAPAR ENCAPOTADO

encaramado v. CARAMILLO ENCARAMAR (CARAMILLO)

encarar v. cara 3

ENÇARÇARSE 8. ÇARÇAPARRILLA ENCARCAVINAR (CARCAVA)

ENCARCELAR (CARCELERO)

ENCARECEDOR

ENCARECER (CARESTIA)
encarecido v. ENCARECER
encarecimiento v. ENCARECER;

CARESTIA; CARECER ENCARGAR (CARGO) encarnacion v. ENCARNAR ENCARNAR

ENCARNAR ENCARNIZARES

78 ENCENDencarnizarse v. ENCARNIZARES; ENCOMIO CARNEMOMIA ENCONARSE encartacion v. Carta ENCONTINENTE ENCARTAR (CARTA) ENCONTRA encontradas v. ENCONTRAR ENCASAR ENCASTILLARSE (CASTILLO) ENCONTRAR ENCAVALGAR ENCONTRON ENCAXAR 1, 8. CAXA ENCORAR ENCAXAR 2 encorbada v. corva ENCAXE (ENCAXAR 1, 2) encorbar v. corva ENCENAGAR (CIENO) ENCORDAR encencerrada v. CENCERRO ENCORDELAR (CORDEL) ENCENDER ENCORDIO encendimiento v. ENCENDER ENCORDONAR ENCENIZAR (CENIZIENTO) encoroçar v. COROÇA; ENCOROencensar v. Encensario ZAR -ENCENSARIO S. ENCIENSO ENCOROZAR ENCENTAR (ESTRENA) ENCORPORAR encepar v, cepa ENCORVADA encerado v. ENCERAR ENCORVAR ENCERAR (CERA) encovar v. CVEVA encerramiento v. ENCERRAR: ENCRESPAR CERRAR ENCRVDECERSE ENCERRAR (CERRAR) ENCRVELECERSE encestar v. CESTA ENCRVZIJADA (CRVZERO) ENCIA (cf. ENZIAS) ENCVBAR (CVBA) ENCIENSO ENCUBERTAR encierro v. ENCERRAR encubierta v. ENCVBRIR encubridora v. ENCYBRIR ENCIMA ENCUBRIR (CUBRIR) ENCINA encinar v. ENCINA ENCVENTRO (ENCONTRON) enclavar v. clavo 2 ENCVMBRAR (CVMBRE) enclocarse v. CLVECA ENCYCLOPAEDIA enchancletado v. CHANCLETAS ENCOGER (COGER) ENCOGERSE encharcarse v. CHARCO ENCHAS

encogimiento v. ENCOGERSE;

ENCOLAR

ENCOLERIZARSE (COLERA)

ENCOMENDADO ENCOMENDAR

encomienda v. ENCOMENDADO

ENCHAS ENCHIRIDION

endaluvio v. DILVVIO

ENDE ENDECHAS

endechera v. ENDECHAS ENDEMONIADO (DEMONIO) endereçar v. DERECHO

ENDEREZAR

enderezcote v. ENDEREZAR

ENDIABLADO

ENDIBIA (CHICORIA)

ENDILGAR

endivia v. CHICORIA endonar v. DON 3

ENDRINA

endrinal v. ENDRINA endrino v. ENDRINA endromis v. DROMO endulcir v. DVLCOR

ENDVLZAR

ENDVRAR (DVRAR) ENDVRECERSE

ENEAS ENEBRO

ENECHADO enechar v. ENECHADO

ENEGRECER S. ENMVDECER

ENELDO

enelenso v. MACHO

ENEMIGO
ENERGIA
ENERGVMENO
ENERIZARSE

ENERO ENFADAR

enfado v. ENFADAR

ENFADOSO ENFALDAR

enfaldarse v. FALDA

ENFARDELAR

ENFASI S. EMPIRICO

enfermar v. enfermo; firma

enfermedad v. Enfermo

ENFERMERIA

enfermizo v. ENFERMO

ENFERMO ENFIN ENFINTA ENFITEOSI (EMPHITEOSI) ENFLAQVECER (FLACO) ENFRASCARSE (FRASCA)

ENFRENAR

enfrenarse v. Freno enfrente v. Frente enfriadera v. Friar

ENFRIAR ENFVNDAR

engafecer v. GAFO

ENGALANAR

engalanarse v. GALAN engañador v. ENGAÑO engañapastor v. ÇVMAYA engañar v. ENGAÑO

ENGAÑO

engañoso v. ENGAÑO

ENGARABATAR ENGARBAR

ENGARGANTAR (GARGANTA 2)

ENGARRAFAR ENGASTAR

ENGATAR (GATEAR)

ENGAVILLAR ENGAYTAR

ENGAZAR (GOZNES)

ENGENDRAR engia v. ENZIAS ENGOLFARSE (GOLFO)

engolondrinarse v. GOLONDRINA engolosinarse v. GOLOSMEAR;

GVLA

engomar v. GOMA ENGORDAR (GORDO) engorrar v. GORRA engoznar v. GOZNES

ENGRANDECER (GRANDE 2)

ENGREIR

ENGROSAR (GROSERO 2)

ENGRVDO

enguantado v. GVANTE enguecar v. GVECO

ENGVLLIR

enharinar v. HARINA

ENHASTIAR

ENHEBRAR v. HEBRA

ENHECHIZAR

enherbolado v. IERVA 1

ENHESTAR

ENHETRAR (BEHETRIA; INTRI-

CADO)

enhiesto v. Enhestar

enhilar v. HILAR

enhocar v. HVECO

enhornar v. Horno

ENIGMA

enigmatico v. ENIGMA

enjaezar v. IAEZ

enjaguadientes v. ENJAGVAR

enjaguadura v. ENJAGVAR

ENJAGVAR 8. ENJALVEGAR

ENJALMA S. ENVILECER

ENJALVEGAR 8. ENJALMA

enjaular v. IAVLA

ENIORGINAPSE S. IORGINA

enjorginar v. brvxa enjoyar v. loyel

enjugar v. IVGO

enlabiador v. Labeones

enlabiar v. Labeones

ENLAZAR ENLODAR

ENLVTAR

ENMAGRECERSE

enmarañar v. MARAÑA

ENMASCARADOS S. CARATVLA

ENMASCARARSE

ENMVDECER

ENNOBLECER (NOBLE)

enojadizo v. Enojoso

ENOJAR

enojo v. ENOJAR

ENOJOSO ENORME enquadernador v. ENQVADER-

NAR; QVADERNAS

ENQVADERNAR 8. ENCVBAR

(QVADERNAS)

enquillar v. ENCALLARSE

enquillotrado v. ENQVILLO-

TRARSE

ENQVILLOTRARSE

enramada v. ENRAMAR

ENRAMAR

enranciarse v. RANCIO

enredadera v. ENREDAR

ENREDAR (RED)

enredo v. enredar

enriçar v. RIZO

ENRIDAR

ENRIQUE

ENRIQUECER

ENRIQUEZ

ENRISCARSE

enristrar v. RISTRE

ENRIZAR 1, 2

ENRONQVECERSE

ENROSCAR (ROSCA)

ENRVBIAR

ENSALADA S. ENSALMO

ENSALÇAR

ensalmador v. ENSALMO

ensalmar v. ENSALMO; SALMO

ENSALMO

ensamblador v. Ensamblar

ENSAMBLAR

ensancha v. ENSANCHAR

ENSANCHAR

ensancharse v. ANCHO

ensanchas v. ANCHO

ENSANDECER (SANDIO)

ensangostar v. ANGOSTO

ENSANGRENTAR

ENSAÑARSE (SAÑA)

ensario v. BADAJOZ

ENSARTAR

ENZ

ensavanado v. savanas entramos v. Ambos entrampado v. trampa ensayador v. Ensavar entrañable v. Entrañas

ENSAYAR ENTRAÑAS ENSAYO ENTRAR

ensemble v. Ensamblar Entre (Entredientes)

ENSENSIOS ENTREDICHO
ENSEÑA ENTREDIENTES

ENSEÑAR entredoble v. ENTREDIENTES

enseño v. Enseñar Entremes
Ensilar (silo) Entremeter
Ensillar Entreponer
Ensobervecerse 1, s. sobervia Entresacar

ENSOBERVECERSE 2 ENTRESVELO (ESTVDIO)

ENSORTIJAR ENTRETANTO ENSVCIAR (ÇVZIO) ENTRETENER

ensuziarse v. CVZIO entretenimiento v. ENTRETENER

ENTABLAR ENTRETEXER
ENTALLADOR (TALLA 1) ENTREVALO
ENTALLAR (TALLA 1) ENTRICAR
ENTECADO ENTRISTECER
ENTENDER ENTRONIZAR

ENTENDIMIENTO entronizarse v. TRONO enterarse v. ENTERO ENTVRBIAR (TVRBIO)

entereza v. ENTERO ENVASAR ENTERNECER ENVEJECER

ENTERO envejecerse v. VEJEZ; VIEJA

enterramiento v. ENTERRAR; ENVELECO

OBSEQVIAS envelesarse v. VELEÑO

ENTHYMEMA ENVES

ENTIBIAR envesado v. ENVES

ENTIZNAR ENVILECER
ENTOLDAR (TOLDO) ENXAMBRE
ENTONAR (TONO) ENXERIR

ENTONCES ENXERTO (ADOPTAR)
ENTORCHA enxugador v. ENXVGAR

entorchado v. Entorcha Enxygar Entornar Entorpecer Enxyndia

ENTORTAR ENXVTO 8. ENXVGAR

ENTRADA S. ENTRAR ENZERRO entrambos v. AMBOS ENZIAS

ENZINA (cf. ENCINA) EREGIR EOLO EREJE EPHEMERIDES eremitica v. ERMITA eretical v. Ereje ephesio v. Efeso EPICEDIO erica v. brezo 1 EPICO erina v, Brezo 1 epicureo v. EPICVRO ERISIPVLA EPICVRO ERIZARSE ERIZO 1, 2 (CASTAÑA) EPICHEIA ermanarse v. HERMANO EPIFANIA EPIFANIO ermandad v. HERMANO ermano v. HERMANO EPIGLOSIS ERMAPHRODITO (EMAFRODITO) EPIGRAMA EPILEPSIA ERMAR epilogar v. Epilogo ERMITA EPILOGO ermitaño v. ERMITA EPIMENIDES EROICO EPISTOLA ERRAR epistolario v. Epistola errarse v. HERRAR EPITAPHIO ERRATICO EPITETO ERRON EPITHALAMIO ERRONEA erroneo v, HERRADA EPITHIMIA error v. Herrar 1 EPITOME EQVIDAD ERVAJE EQVINOCIAL ERVATV

EQVINOCIO EQVIVALENTE EQVIVOCO ERA 1, 2, 3 ERARIO ERASMO 1, 2

erbaje v. ierva 1

ERBOLARIO ERECCION 1 ERECCION 2, s. EREGIR

erecto v, ereccion 2 EREDAD EREDADO EREDAMIENTO

EREDERO eregia v. Ereje ervatum v. ERVATV ESAIAS

ESBIRRO (BIRRHOS)

escabechar v. ESCABECHE

ESCABECHE

ESCABELO (ESCAÑO) escabro v. ESCABROSO ESCABROSIDAD (ESCABROSO)

ESCABROSO

ESCABULLIRSE (BULLIR) escacado v. ESCAQVE

ESCALA ESCALAMO

escalar v. ESCALA .

ESCALDAR ESCALENTARSE ESCALERA ESCASO escalmo v. ESCALAMO ESCATIMAR

ESCALON escatimosamente v. ESCATIMAR

ESCALONA ESCAVAR

ESCAMA ESCLARECER (CLARO)

escamada v. Escamoso Esclava

escamar v. Escamoso esclavitud v. Esclava
ESCAMOCHOS ESCLAVO (CLAVO 2)
ESCAMONEA ESCLAVONIA

ESCAMOSO ESCLVIR
ESCAMPAR ESCOBA
escampo v. ESCAMPAR ESCOBAJO
ESCANCIAR (CANDIA) ESCOBAR

escandalizado v. escandalo escobilla 1, 2

ESCANDALO ESCANDALO ESCODA

ESCANDELAR ESCOFIA (COFIA)

ESCANDERBECH escofiado v. ESCOFIETA ESCANDIA ESCOFIETA 8. COFIA

ESCAÑA ESCOFINA

ESCAÑO escofion v. ESCOFIETA ESCAPAR (CAPA) ESCOGER (COGER)

ESCAQVE ESCOGIDO
ESCARAMVÇA ESCOLANO
ESCARAMVJO ESCOLAR
ESCARAPELA ESCOLASTICO
ESCARAVAJO (ESCARAMVJO) ESCOLIMOSO

ESCARCELA ESCOLOS
ESCARCHA ESCOLOPENDRA

escarchado v. ESCARCHA ESCOLTA
escarda v. ESCARDAR ESCOMBRAR
escardadera v. ESCARDAR ESCONDER

ESCARDAR escopedina v. ESCOPETINA;
ESCARIOTE ESCOPETINA;

ESCARLATA (GRANA) ESCOPETA (ARCABVZ)
escarmentar v. ESCARMIENTO escopetazo v. ESCOPETEAR

ESCARMIENTO ESCOPETEAR

ESCARMIENTO ESCOPETEAR

ESCARNECER ESCOPETERO
escarnio v. ESCARNECER ESCOPETINA
ESCAROLA (CHICORIA) ESCOPLO

ESCARPIN escorçado v. ESCVERZO ESCARVAR ESCORIA (ESCVRIAL)

	ESCORIAL	ESCVELAS	
--	----------	----------	--

ESCORPION ESCORZAR ESCVERZO ESCVERZO

ESCOTA ESCVETO
ESCOTA ESCVLAPIO

ESCOTAR (ESCODA; ESCOTA; ESCVLPIR
COTA 2) ESCVLTOR

ESCOTE (COTA 2) escultura v. ESCVLTOR

ESCOTILLON ESCVPIDVRA
escotista v. ESCOTO ESCVPIR
ESCOTO ESCVRECER
ESCOZER ESCVRIAL

ESCOZIMIENTO ESCVSABARAJAS

escozor v. Escozimiento escusable v. Escosarse escritilla v. Criadillas 2 Escosado

ESCRITO (CRIADILLAS 2)
ESCVSAR
ESCRITOR S. ESCRIVIR
ESCVSARSE
ESCRITORILLO
ESCVTAR

ESCRITORIO ESCVTRINIO 8. ESCVDRIÑAR
ESCRITVRA escherçado v. ESCORZAR
ESCRITVRARIO escherço v. ESCORZAR

ESCRIVA ESCRIVAVLO ESCRIVANIA 1, 2 ESECVTORIA

ESCRIVANO ESENCIA S. ESQVIVAR

ESCRIVIENTE (ESCRIVANO) ESENTO ESCRIVIR 1, 2 ESFERA escrofula v. LAMPARON ESFINGE

esforçarse v. esforzado 1

escrupuloso v. Escrvpvlo 1 Esforzado 1, 2

ESCVCHA ESFORZAR
ESCVCHADERA ESFVERZO
ESCVCHAR ESGRIMA
escudarse v. ESCVDO ESIODO

escuderear v. ESCVDERO ESLADOR
ESCVDERO (GENTILES 3) ESLAVON
escudete v. ESCVDO ESLAVONAR
ESCVDILLA ESLEIR

escudillar v. ESCVDILLA ESMALTAR ESCVDO ESMALTE

escudriñador v. escvdriñar esmeralda escvdriñar esmerarse

ESCVELA ESMEREJON (ALCOTAN)

ESPARTEÑA (ALPARGATE;

esparteria v. Esparto

ESPARTO)

ESMERIL 1, 2 (ARCABVZ) espartero v. Esparto esmerilazo v. Esmeril 2 ESPARTO (ISOPO) ESPATVLA 1, S. ESPADILLA (ES-ESPACIARSE PALDA) ESPACIO ESPATVLA 2, S. ESPARTEÑA ESPACIOSO ESPADA (ESPADAS; BASTON 3) ESPECIAL ESPADACHIN S. ESPATVLA especialidad v. Especial ESPADAÑAR especiaro v. Especias ESPADAS S. ESPALADINAR ESPECIAS ESPADERO ESPECIE especiero v. ESPECIAS ESPADILLA espadillar v. ESPADILLA especificación v. Especificar ESPADON (CALVO; CAPAR) especificadamente v. ESPECI-ESPALADINAR S. ESPADA FICAR ESPALDA (ESPALDAS) ESPECIFICAR espaldarazo v. ESPADA ESPECTACVLO espaldas v. HAVA ESPEDIR ESPALDERES ESPEJA ESPALDVDO ESPEJAR ESPALMAR (BREA; DESPALMAR) ESPEJO espaller v. Bogar ESPEJVELO espeluçarse v. ESPELVZOS ESPANDIR espantable v. ESPANTAR ESPELVZOS espantadizo v. ESPANTAR ESPERANÇA ESPANTAJO ESPERAR espantaniños v. ESTOCAFRIS ESPERIA ESPANTAR ESPERIENCIA ESPAÑA ESPERMA español v. ESPAÑA ESPESAR españolado v. ESPAÑA espeso v. Espesar ESPARAVAN espesura v. Espesar ESPARAVEL ESPETAR ESPARCIR S. ESPARTEÑA espetera v. ESPETAR (DESPARCIR) espeto v. ESPETAR ESPIA 1, 2 ESPARCIRSE ESPARRAGADO ESPIGA espigadero v. Espigar ESPARRAGO (ESPARRAGVERA) ESPARRAGVERA ESPIGAR ESPARRANCARSE ESPIGON

ESPILOCHO

espina ratera v. BRVSCO

ESPINA

	ESP	86	EST
ESPI	NACA	espumadera v . Espvmar	3.
ESPI	NAR	ESPVMAR .	
ESPI	NAZO	ESPVMARAJOS	
ESPI	NEL	ESPVRIO	
espir	nela v . ESPINEL	ESQVADRA 1, 2	
ESPI	NETA	ESQVADRON	
ESPI	NILLA	ESQVELETO	
espir	no v . ESPINAR	ESQVERO (ESCARCELA)	•
espir	nosa v . ESPINAR	ESQVIFE	
ESPI	NPVERCO	esquilador v . Esqvilo	
ESPI	ON 8. ESPIA 1	ESQVILAR	
ESPI	RAR 8. ESPIRITY	ESQVILMO	
espir	ritado v. Espirity	ESQVILO	
ESPI.	RITV	ESQVILON 8. ESQVINAN	CIA
ESPI	RITVAL	(CAMPANA)	
ESPI	TA	ESQVINA (ANGVLO; ESQ	(VINADO
ESPI	TAL	ESQVINADO	
ESPI	TALERO	ESQVINANCIA (ADIVAS)	
ESPL	IEGO	esquinencia v . Esqvinal	NCIA
espo	lada v . ESPOLEAR	esquito v. QVITO	
espo	leadura v . ESPOLEAR	ESQVIVAR	
ESPC	DLEAR (ESPVELA 1)	esquiveza v . Esqviveza	
ESPC	OLON	ESQVIVO	
espo	lonada v . ESPOLEAR	essempto v. ESENTO	
ESPC	ONDEO	ESSENCION 8. ESENTO	
ESPC	DNJA	ESTABLE	
ESPC	ONJARSE	ESTABLEAR 8. ESTABLO	
espo	njoso v . ESPONJARSE	ESTABLECER	

esponjoso v. Esponjarse
ESPORTEAR s. ESPVERTA
ESPORTILLA
ESPORTILLO
ESPORTON
ESPOSA
ESPREMIDVRA

espresiva v. Esprimir
espreso v. Esprimir
ESPRIMIR
ESPVELA 1, 2
ESPVERTA
espulgar(se) v. PVLGA
ESPVMA (ESPVMAR)

espresion v. Esprimir

ESTABLECIDO ESTABLECIMIENTO ESTABLO ESTACA (ESTACAS) estacada v. ESTACA; ESTACAS ESTACAS . ESTACIONERO ESTADAL (ANA 2) ESTADIZO 8. ESTAR (ESTANCAR) ESTADO 1, 2 ESTADOS S. ESTRADO ESTAFA estafador v. ESTAFAR ESTAFAR

ESTESTESTAFERMO ESTEPA ESTAFETA ESTERA esterar v. ESTERA ESTALLIDO Estambor v, constantinopla ESTERCOLAR estambrado v. ESTAMBRE estercolero v. Estercolar estambrar v. Estambre ESTERIL ESTAMBRE esterilizar v. ESTERIL estameña v. ESTAMBRE esterilla v, estera ESTAMPA ESTEVA ESTAMPAR ESTEVADO ESTAMPIDA ESTEVAN estampido v. ESTAMPIDA ESTIBAR (ESTEVA) ESTANCAR ESTIERCOL S. ESTERA ESTANCIA ESTIGIA estanco v. ESTANCAR estilar v. Estilo ESTANDARTE ESTILO ESTANGVRRIA estima v. Estimar estimable v. ESTIMAR ESTANQUE estimacion v. Estimar estanguillo v. ESTANQVE ESTANTE ESTIMAR ESTANTEROL ESTIO ESTANTIGVA ESTIPENDIO estantio v. ESTAR ESTIPVLACION ESTAÑAR (ESTAÑO) ESTIPVLAR ESTAÑO 1 ESTIRAFLOXA estaño 2 (err. por estraño) s. ESTIBAR ESTRANGERO ESTIRON estaquilla v. ESTACAS ESTIRPAR 1, 2 ESTIRPE ESTAR ESTITICO 1, 2 ESTATVA ESTIVAL (ESTIO) ESTATVARIOS ESTATVIR ESTIZA ESTATVRA estizarse v. Estiza

ESTATVTO ESTE 1, 2 ESTEBA (ESTEVA)

estebado v. ESTEBA; ESTEVADO

ESTEFANIA . ESTELA

ESTELION

ESTENDER ESTENDIDO ESTOCADA

ESTOCAFRIS ESTOFADO 1, 2 ESTOFAR

ESTOICOS ESTOLA 1, 2

estomachal v. Estomago

ESTOMAGO ESTOPA (LINO) ESTOQVE (ESTOCADA)

ESTORAQVE

ESTORCIJON S. ESTORVO

ESTORNIJA ESTORNINO ESTORNVDAR

ESTORNVDO (ESTORNVDAR)

ESTORVAR ESTORVO ESTRABON

ESTRAÇA S. ESTRATAGEMA

ESTRADA

estradillo v. Estados Estradiotá

ESTRADIOTE

ESTRADO (DATHEDRALITIOS;

ESTADOS)

ESTRAGAR

estragarecados v. VILLETE

estrago v. Estragar

estrangeria v. ESTRANGERO

ESTRANGERO

estrañar(se) v. Estaño 2

estrañeza v. Estaño estraño v. Estaño 2

ESTRATAGEMA

estrecharse v, estrechyra

ESTRECHO

ESTRECHVRA

estregadera, -o, v. estregarse

ESTREGAR ESTREGARSE

ESTRELLA (ESTRELLARSE)

ESTRELLARSE S. ESTRELLERO

estrellera v. ESTRELLERO

ESTRELLERO

estremado v. Estremoz

ESTREMADVRA

ESTREMERA

ESTREMO ESTREMOZ

ESTRENA

estrenar v. Estrena

ESTRIGES

estrivar v. Estrivo

ESTRIVO (ESTAFA; ESTAFAR)

ESTROPAJO

ESTROPEADO

ESTROPEAR

ESTROPEÇAR ESTROPIECO

ESTRVENDO

ESTRVJAR (CAPAR)

ESTVCHE

ESTVDIANTE

ESTVDIAR ESTVDIO

ESTVDIOSO

ESTVFA

estufar v. Estyfa

estufilla v. ESTVFA

ESTVNIGA ESTVPRO

ESTVQVE

ESTURION

ETENAZAR S. ATEMORIZAR

ETERNIDAD

ETERNIZARSE

ETERNO

ETICA

Etiope v. ETIOPIA

ETIOPIA

etiopisa v. ETIOPIA

ETYMOLOGIA

EVCHARISTIA

EVDOXIA

Eudoxio v. EVDOXIA

EVFRASIA

EVERATES

EVFROSINA

eufrosina v. BORRAXA

EVGENIO

EVNVCO (CAPAR)

EVRO

EVROPA exidia v. EXIDO EXIDO

EVSTAQVIO EXIMIO

EVTERPE eximir v. EXIMIO
EVTHYMIO EXISTENCIA
eutrapelia v. EVTROPELIA EXODO

EVTROPELIA exorbitancia v. EXORBITANTE;

89

EVA CARRIL
EVACVAR EXORBITANTE

EVANGELICO exortacion v. EXORTAR

EVANGELIO EXORTAR

evangelista v. EVANGELIOexpedicion v. ESPEDIREVANGELIZARexpediente v. ESPEDIREVANOexpedir v. ESPEDIR

EVARISTO expositivo v. ESCOLASTICO

EVORA EXPOSITO

ex v. OX EXPRIMIR (ESPRIMIR)

EXAGERAR EXQVISITO EXAMEN EXTASI

examinador v. EXAMINAR extensive v. INTENSIVO

EXAMINAR EXTINGVIR

extrinseco v. Intrinseco

F

exasperar v. ASPERO EZIJA EZQVERRA

exclusion v. EXCLVIR

EXCOMVNION

EXE 1, 2 (HARRE; TO)

EXEA faba v. F
execucion v. ESCYTAR FABIANO
executar v. ESCYTAR FABIO

EXECUTOR (FIEL EXECUTOR; fablar v. HABLAR

OBISPO; ESCYTAR) FABRICA

EXEDRAFABRICIOexemplar v. DECHADO; EXEMPLOFABVLAexemplificar v. EXEMPLOFABVLISTAEXEMPLOFABVLOSOEXEQVIASFACAEXERCERFACANEA

EXERCICIO FACECIA
EXERCITADO FACIL

EXERCITO facilidad v. FACIL

exi v. To FACILITAR

FACINEROSO

FACION 1, 2

FACISTOR (ATRIL)

facistorio v. FALDA

FAÇOLETO (cf. FAZOLETO)

FACVLTAD

FACVNDIA FACVNDO

FADAS

FADAS BOAS

FADRIN

FAETON FAGINA

FAISAN

FALAGO

FALAGVEÑO

falaguero v. falagveño falcar s. falcon 3

falcato v. carro 1

FALCES

falcia v. Vencejo

FALCIDIA

FALCON 1, 2, 3

falconete v. FALCON 2, 3;

ARCABVZ

FALDA (MONTE)

faldas (poner — en cinta), v.

ENFALDAR

faldellin v. falda faldeta v. falda faldilla v. falda

faldistorio v. falda

faldon v. FALDA

FALIR

falo v. CARNICOL

FALQVIAS

falsario v. falsia

FALSETE

FALSTA

falsificador v. Falsia

falsificar v. falsia

FALSO

FALSOPETO

FALTA 1, 2

FALTAR (FALTA 2)

FALTO

FALTRIQUERA (FARTRIQUERA)

FALVA

fallar v. HALLAR

FAMA FAMILIA

FAMILIAR FAMILIARIDAD

FAMOSO (LIBELO)
FANAL (ALFARO)

FANDVLARIO (FALDA)

FANEGA

fanegada v. fanega fanfarria v. fanfarron

FANFARRON

fanfarronear v. FANFARRON

FANTASEAR FANTASIA 1, 2

FANTASMA (ESTANTIGVA)

FANTASTICO

farandula v. Farandvlero

FARANDVLERO, -A

FARAVTE (FARANDVLERO)

farçante v. FARSA

FARDA
FARDEL
FARDO

farfullador v. Farfyllar

FARFVLLAR

FARFANTE

FARISEO FARMACOPOLA

FARO (ATALAYA)

farol v. faro; alfaro

farpa v. Carpar; Harpar

FARRO FARSA

farsante v. FARANDVLERO; FARSA

FAR	91 FIA
FARTALES	fedifrago v . FEMENTIDO
fartar v. HARTAR	FEDRIA
FARTRIQVERA	FELICIANO 8. FELIX
farza v. farsa	FELICISSIMO
fas v. fasta	FELICITAS ·
FASOLES	FELIGRES
FASTA (HASTA)	FELIX
FASTIDIO	FELIZ
fastidioso v. fastidio	FELONIA
FASTO	FELPA
FATAL	FEMENCIA
fatiga v. fatigar	FEMENTIDO
FATIGAR	FENECER (FIN)
FATIMA	fenecimiento v. fenecer; fin
fato v. HECHO	FENIX
FATOR	FENO (HENO)
FATORIA	FEO (FEA; FEA COSA)
fausto v. fasto	feria 1, 2
FAVILA	feriado v. feria 2
FAVOR	ferial v. feria 2
FAVORABLE	feriar v . FERIA 1
FAVORECER	ferida v . FERIR
favorido v. favorecer	FERIR (HERIR)
FAXA (FAIXA)	FERNANDO
FAXAR	FERNAN GONZALEZ
FAXARDO	FEROZ
faxero v. faxa	FERRERVELO
FAZ (HAZ)	FERRVMBRAL
fazer v. hazer 2	FERTIL
FAZFIRIDO	fertilidad v . FERTIL
FAZIENDA	fertilizar v. fertil
FAZOLETO (cf. FAÇOLETO)	FERVOR
FE	fervoroso v . Fervor
FEA	FESTEJAR
FEA COSA	FESTIVIDAD S. FIESTA
	,

FEALDAD
FEBLE
FEBO
FEBRERO
FECHA

fechizera v. FECHO 2 FECHO 1, 2 (HECHO) FEVDO fevista v. VISTA FEZ

FESTIVO (FESTIVIDAD)

FIADOR (AMENTO)

FIAMBRE

FESTON

fiambreras fiança v. fiador

FIAR

ficcion v. Ficion; fingir

FICION

FIDALGO 1, 2, 3 fideiusion v. Dedo

FIDEOS FIEBRE FIEL

FIEL EXECUTOR (OBISPO)

FIELDAD FIELTRO FIERA

fiereza v. FIERA fiero v. FIERA

FIESTA

figado v. HIGADO figon v. HIGVERA

FIGVERA

FIGVEROA (DONCELLA)

FIGURA

figurar v. FIGVRA figurilla v. FIGVRA

FIJAR 1, 2

fijo de algo v. FIDALGO 1 fijo de ganancia v. BARRAGAN

FIL 8. FILISTEOS FILADELFOS

FILANDRIAS FILANTROPIA FILATERIA

FILELI

FILEMON FILIACION FILIAL

 ${\bf FILIGRANA}$

FILIPE 1, 2

FILIPENDVLA FILIPINAS

FILIPOS FILISTEOS filo v. FIL

FILOPATRO
FILOPOLO
FILOPONO

FILOSOFO ·

filosomia v. Fisonomia

FIN

FINAL (FIN) finarse v. FIN fincar v. FIN fineza v. FINO fingidor v. FINGIR

FINGIR FINIANA

finiquito v. fin

FINO FIRMA

firmeza v. firma fiscal v. fisco fiscalia v. fisco fiscela v. fisco

FISCO FISGA FISGON

fisica v. fisico fisico (medico) fisiologia

fisionomia v. fisonomia

FISONOMIA FISTICO FISTO FISTOLA

fistolete v. FLAVTA

FITERO FIVCIA

fixo v. fijar 2

FLACO

FLAGELANTES (DICIPLINARSE)

flagelo v. FLAGELANTES

FLAMENCO FLAMINES FLAMINIO FLAMVLA FLANDES

flanelo v. FVSTA

flaqueza v. FLACO

FLAVTA flautado v. FLAVTA

FLECHA

flechar v. FLECHA

flechazo v. FLECHA flechero v. FLECHA

FLEGETON FLEMA

flematico v. FLEMA

FLEMON FLETE

flocadura v. FLVECO

FLOGEL

FLOR (FLOREO) FLORA floral v. FLORA

floreado v. FLOREO florecer v. FLORIDO

FLORENCIA FLORENTIN

FLOREO (LEVADA) FLORESTA FLOREZ

FLOREZ

florin v. FLORENTIN

FLORINDA

FLOS SANTORUM

FLOTAR

floxedad v. floxo

FLOXO FLVCTVAR

FLVECO FLVIDO

FLVSLERA FLVVIAL

fluxlera v. flyslera

FLVXO

FOCA

focico v. HOCICO

FOCIGO FOFO

FOGAR (FOGVERA)

FOGON FOGOSO

FOGVERA S. FVEGO

FOJA 1, 2

FOLGAR (HOLGAR)

FOLIA FOLVZ FOLLA

FOLLADO (FVELLES)

FOLLAJE

FOLLON (FVELLES)

fomentacion v. Fomentar

FOMENTAR
FOMILLAN
FONDILLON
FONDO

fondon v. FONDO; HONDON

FONSADERA
FONTANA
FONTANAYA
FONTANERO
FONTECILLAS
foraño v. HVRAÑO

FORASTERO

FORCA

forçado v. fverça; forçoso

FORÇAR

forcejas v. forçoso; forçvdo

FORCEJON

forcijon v. Forçvdo Forçoso (Forçado)

FORÇVDO S. FVERTE (FORÇADO)

FORCHINA

FORERA s. FORÇOSO forero v. FVERA

FORJAR

FORMA fraylezico v. FRAYLESCO
FORMAR fraylia v. FRAYLE
FORMENTAR FREÇA
FORNESINO FRECHA
FORNICAR FREGADERO

fornicio v. Fornicar fregado v. Fregadero
FORNIDO FREGAR

ORNIDO FREGAR

forro v. Horro fregona v. Fregadero

fortalecer v. fornicar Freir FORTALEZA FRENECIA

FORTVNA frenetico v. FRENECIA frenillo v. FRENO

FOSAFRENOfosal v. FOSAFRENTEFOSCOFRESAS

Foso frescal v. Fresco

FRAÇADA 8. FRASCO FRESCO

FRAGA frescura v. FRESCO
FRAGATA fresneda v. FRESNO
FRAGIL FRESNO

fragilidad v. fragil freza

FRAGOSA frialdad v. FRIO

FRAGVA FRIAS

FRAGVAR FRIERAS (SAVAÑON)

FRANCES FRIO FRIO friole

FRANCIA friolengo v. FRIO FRANCISCO frioliento v. FRIO FRANCO 1, 2 (FRANCOS) frisa v. FRIO

FRANCOLIN frisado v. FRIO FRANCOS frisar v. FRIO

FRANJAS FRISO

FRANQUEAR FRISOLES (FASOLES; PESOLES)

franqueza v. Francos; Fran- Frison
QVEAR FRITO

franquicia v. Franquear FRIVOLO FRASCA (ENFRASCARSE) FROMESTA

FRASCO FRONDOSO FRONTAL (FRENTE)

frasquilla v. Frasco frontal (Frente)

FRAYLE frontera v. FRENTE

fraylecillo v. frayle frontero v. frente

FRAYLESCO FRONTINO

frontispicio v. FRENTE
fructifero v. FRVTA
FRVCHO
FRVGALIDAD
FRVNZIR
FRVSLERA
FRVTA (FREIR)
FRVTAGES
FRVTERA

FRVTERO fruto v. FRVTA

fruxlera v. frvslera fucia v. afvciar fvego (familiar) fuego de San Anton, v. eri-

SIPVLA FVELLES FVEN

FVENTE fuer v, FVERO

FVERA

fueras v. FVERA FVERÇA 1, 2

FVERO JVZGO FVERTE 1, 2

FVGAZ FVGITIVO FVINA

fulanillo v. fvlano; çvtano

FVLANO (ÇVTANO)

FVLMINAR
FVLLERIA
FVLLERO
FVMOROLAS

fumosidad v. Fymorolas

FVMVSTERRAE

funabulario v. Boltear funambulo v. Maroma

FVNDA

fundacion v. FVNDAR fundamento v. FVNDAR

FVNDAR

fundicion v. Fundir fundidor v. Fundir

FVNDIR
FVRIA
FVRIAS
FVRIOSO
FVROR
FVRRIEL

furtifero v. fygitivo fusil v. hyndir

FVSLERA FVSTA FVSTAN

fuste v. FVSTA fustero v. FVSTA fustigar v. FVSTA

FVZIA

G

G

GABALCOHOL GABALDON

gabanço v. ESCARAMVJO

GABELA gabia v. GAVIA GABRIEL

GAÇAPO gacona v. GAVAN

GACHAS

gachnate v. GAZNATE

GACHO (CACHO; AGACHARSE)

GADIR
GADITANO
GAETA
GAFAR
GAFARRON
GAFAS
GAFETI

GAFO (CACHO)

GAGES GAGGIO gaita v. MELECINA gajes v. GAGES

GAJO

GALA (HALA 2; HALAGAR)

GALACIA GALAN

galanteria v. GALAN

GALARDON

galardonar v. Galardon

GALATEA GALAVARDO

galbana v. GALAVARDO galbano v. GAVAN

GALDRES

galeaza v. GALERA galeon v. GALERA galeote v. GALERA

GALERIAS
GALFARROS
GALGA 1, 2
GALGO

galgueño v. GALGO galiciano v. GALIZIA

GALILEA GALIZIA

GALOCHA (ÇVECO)

GALOCHAS GALOPE

galopear v. GALOPE

gallarda v. GALLO; ESCVELA

GALLARDETES
gallardia v. GALLO
gallardo v. GALLO

gallear v. GALLO; GARÇON

GALLEGO (GALIZIA)

GALLIA . GALLIANA

GALLILLO (GVLA; EPIGLOSIS)

GALLINA (BLANCA 1)

gallinero v. Gallina gallito v. Gallo Gallo v. Gallofo gallo (gallardetes)

GALLOCRESTA

gallofear v. GALLOFO gallofera v. GALLOFO

GALLOFO

Gallogrecia v. GALACIA

GAMBA GAMBARO

gambeta v. Gamba Gamboa v. OÑEZ

GAMELLA 1, 2 (CAMELLA)

gamito v. GAMO

GAMON GAMVZA GANA

ganadero v. GANADO

GANADO

ganancia v. GANAR; BARRAGAN

ganancioso v. GANAR

GANAPAN GANAR GANÇVA

gançuar v. GANÇVA

GANÇVLES

ganchero v. GANCHO

GANCHO
GANGA (CAÇA)
GANGOSO
GANIMEDES

GANNIVETE S. GAÑIR

ganoso v. gana gansinos

GANSO (ANSAR) GANZVA

GAÑAN 8. GANAR

GAÑIR 8. GAÑAN GAONA

GAONA GARABATO

garrilla v. GARRAS

GARROCHA

GARAÑON GARROCHON GARATVSA GARROFA GARAY GARROFAL garbançal v. GARBANÇO garron v. GARRA GARBANÇO S. GARROVILLA garrotazo v. GARROTE garbançvelo v. Frisoles GARROTE garbillador v. GARBILLAR garrotillo v. GARROTE GARBILLAR (ALGARBE) GARROVA garbo v. ALGARBE GARROVILLA garbullo v. GARBILLAR garvillar v. ALGARBE GARÇA GARVIN GARCETAS GASA GARCI GASAJO Garcia v. GARCI gascuence v. GASCVÑA GARCO (GARCETAS) GASCVÑA GARCON gastador v. GASTAR garçonear v. GARÇON GASTAR garçota v. GARÇA; CERCETA gasto v. GASTAR GARDVÑA GATA (CANDIL) gargagiento v. GARGAJO GATEAR gargagillo v. GARGAJO GATERA GARGAJO gatero v. GATERA gargajoso v. GARGAJO GATILLO GARGANTA 1, 2 gato v. GATA; GATEAR gargantilla v. GARGANTA 2 GATO DE ALGALIA GARGARISMO GATO MONTES gatopablo v. Gatopavs GARGOLA garguero v. GARGANTA 1; GAR-GATOPAVS gatuña v. GATERA GARISMO garisea v. CARISEA GAVACHOS GARITA GAVAN GARLITO GAVANCO garlopa v. GARLITO GAVASA GARNACHA GAVELA GARRA (GARRAS; GARABATO) GAVETA GARRAFA 1, 2 GAVIA GARRAMA (DERRAMAS) GAVILAN (HIDALGO 2) GARRAPATA GAVILLA GARRAS GAVIOTA gavadas v. VELLORITA GARRIDO

GAYADO

gayete v. GAYO

GENOVESES GAYTA (GAYTERIA; CLYSTEL) GEOMANCIA GAYTERIA geometra v. GEOMETRIA gaytero v. GAYTA GEOMETRIA gaytilla v. GAYTERIA GEORGICA gaz v. Algazara GERARCHIA GAZAFATON gerigonça v. GITANO GAZAPERA GERIGONZA gazapillo v. GAZAPERA geringa v. CLYSTEL; FLAVTA; GAZAPO GAZNATE (GRAZNAR) GERION GAZOFILIACIO germania v. GERIGONZA GERMANIA 1, S. ALEMANIA GAZPACHOS gecerina s. GETA GERMANIA 2 gelar v. Elar GERONDA GELASIO GERONIMO GELVES gerra v. GVERRA GEMELOS GERVNDIO GEMIR GESTO GETA (HONGO) GENCIANA GENERAL 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 (AVLA) GETAS GENERALIFE GIBA GENERO gibao v. corcoba generosidad v. Generoso GIBRALEON GENEROSO GIBRALFARO GENESIS GIBRALTAR GENEVA GIGANTE GENGIBRE 8. GENTILEZA GIGANTOMACHIA genial v. GENIO GIGOTE GENIL 1, s. GENESIS GIL GENIL 2, s. GENGIBRE GILONA gimia v. SIMIA GENIO GENIZARO GIMNASIO GENTE GIMNESIAS GENTE GRANADA 8. GRANADO GINEBRA GENTES GINEBRADAS GENTILDONA GINES GENTILES 1, 2, 3 GINESTA S. GINJAS GINETA 1, 2 (BRIDA) GENTILEZA

GINETE (BRIDA)

GINJAS

gingidio v. EMBELESADO

gentilhombre v. Gentiles 3

gentilidad v. GENTILES 1

GENOVA

ginjol v. GINJAS; AÇVFEIFO

ginjola v. GINJAS

GIRA GIRAFA GIRALDETE

giraldina v. GIRALDETE

GIRALDO GIRANDVLA GIRAPLIEGA

GIRAR GIRASOL

GIRIFALTE (SACRE)

GIRIGERO
GIRIGONZA
GIRNALDA 1, 2

GIROFE 8. GIRIFALTE giron v. GIRONA

GIRONA GIRONA

gitaneria v. GITANO

GITANO
GITON
GITONES
GLADIATORES

GLADIOLO (ESPADAÑA)

GLICERIO GLORIA GLORIFICAR GLORIOSO GLOSA

glossa v. GLOSA; TESTO glossador v. GLOSA glossar v. GLOSA

GLOTON

glotonear v. GLOTON glotoneria v. GLOTON

GNEMON

GNOSTICOS (NOSTICOS)

GOBI GODO

Godofre v. GOFREDO Godofredo v. GOFREDO GODOY

GOFO

goferia v. gofo

GOFREDO GOLA (GVLA) GOLDRE GOLETA GOLFO

GOLONDRINA

golondrino v. Golondrina golondro v. Golondrina golosina v. Gola; Goloso Golosmear (Gola) Goloso (Gola; Gvla)

GOLPE

golpear v. Golpe gollete v. Gola golloria v. Golfo

GOMA GOMIA

GOMITAR (ARCA 2) gomito v. GOMITAR

GONÇALO GONDOLA GONORREA

gordiflon v. Gordo

GORDO

gordolobillo v. GORDOLOBO GORDOLOBO (BARBASCO)

GOREVEIA
GORGERA
GORGOJO
GORGONES
GORGONIO
GORGORITAS

GORJA

gorjear v. GORJA

GORMAR GORMAZ GORRA

GORRION (CHIRRIAR) gorron v. GORRA

GRANADA)

GOTA 1, 2 GRANATE GOTACORAL grança v. GRANZAS gotera v. Gota 1 • grançones v. Tramojo GOTICO 8. GODO GRANDE 1, 2, s. GRAN 2 governacion v. Governar 1 grandeza v. GRANDE 2 governador v. Governar 1 grandioso v. Grande 2 governalle v. Governar 1 granela v. ESCOBA GOVERNAR 1, 2 granero v. Grano 1 govierno v. Governar 1 grangeria v. GRANJA GOXE S. GOFO grangero v. GRANJA GOZAR S. GOBI (GOZO) granillo v. Grano 2 GOZNES GRANIZO GOZO 1, S. GOBI GRANJA GOZO 2 GRANO 1, 2 (ENVES) GOZQVE granpho v. CALAMBRE GRACIA 1, 2 GRANZAS S. GRANATE GRACIA DEI GRANZONES S. GRANZAS GRACIAS GRACIOSO GRASA 1, 2 (GOMA; VARNIZ; GRADA 1, 2 ENEBRO) gradario v. HACA GRASIENTO GRADO 1 GRATIFICACION GRADO 2, s. GRADOS 5 GRATIFICAR GRADOS 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 gratitud v. GRATIFICAR GRADVALES GRATO GRAFIER GRAVAR 1, 2 graja v. GRAJO; CORNEJA GRAVE gravedad v. GRAVE GRAJAL GRAJES gravisimo v. GRAVE GRAZNAR 1, S. GRAZNIDO GRAJO GRAMA (VERVENA) GRAZNAR 2 GRAMALLA GRAZNIDO S. GRAJAL GRAMATICO GRECIA GRECIZAR S. GRIEGO GRAMIL GRAMMATICA GREDA (CANDIA) grampho v. CALAMBRE gredal v. GREDA GRAN 1 GREGORIA GRAN 2, S. GRANZONES gregoriano v. GREGORIA GRANA (COCO 2) GREGOPIO GRANADA 1, 2 GREMIAL GRANADO (GRANADA; GENTE GREMIO

grenche v. CLIN

GREÑAS GREÑA (CABELLERA) greva v. GIGOTE GVADAIRA GVADAJOZ (GVADAVOZ) GREVAS GREY 1, 2 GVADALABIAR GRIAL GVADALADIAR grial v. GRIAL; ESMERALDA GVADALAXARA GRIEGO GVADALBACAR GRIETA GVADALBARBO GRIFO GVADALBVLLON GRILLO GVADALBVNER. GRIMA GVADALCANA grimazo v. GRIMA GVADALCAZAR GRIS GVADALEN GRISES GVADALERCE GVADALERTIN GRITA GRITADOR GVADALESTE gritar v. GRITA GVADALETE GROLANDIA GVADALHORRA GROSERO 1, 2 GVADALHORZA grosseria v. grosero 2 Guadaliemar v. GVADALIMAR GROSVRA GVADALIMAR GRVA (CIGOÑAL) GVADALMALLETE GRVESO GVADALMEDINA GRVLLA (CANCO) GVADALMELERA GRVLLADA GVADALQVITON GRVMETE GVADALQVIVEXO GVADALQVIVIR (BETIS) GRVMO gruñidor v. GRVÑIR GVADALVPE GRVÑIR GVADAMECI GRVPERA GVADAÑA GRVTA GVADAPERO GRVTESCO GVADARIZA GVACHAPEAR GVADARNES GVACHARO GVADARRAMA GVADA GVADARRANQVE GVADACELLAS S. GVADAZELETE GVADARROMAN GVADACENAS S. GVADACELLAS GVADATORTILLO Guadacivas v. GVADACELLAS° GVADAVOZ

GVADAXARO

GVADAXENIL

GVADAZAHON

GVADAXIRA

GVADAFION
GVADAFIONES S. GVADAPERO
GVADAHENAR
GVADAHORTVNA

GVADAZELETE
GVADAZVLEMA
GVADIANA
GVADIARO
GVADIELA
GVADIZ
GVADOCH
guai v. GVACHERO
GVALDA
GVALDA
GVALDRAPA
gualdrapilla v. GVALDRAPA

GVANTE guanteria v. GVANTE guantero v. GVANTE GVARDA guardainfantes v. TRAJE

guardainfantes v. TRAJI
GVARDAJA
GVARDAPOLVO
GVARDAR
guardia v. GVARDIAN
GVARDIA
GVARDIAN

guardiania v. GVARDIAN guardoso v GVARDA guarecer v. GVARIR guarida v. GVARIR

GVARIK
GVARISMO
GVARNECER
guarnicion v. GVARNECER

guarnicionero v. GVARNECER; CVERO

GVARNIR (GARNACHA; GVAR-NECER)

GVAY GVAYA

guayar v. GVAYA GVEBRA (VEBRA)

GVECAR
GVECO
GVEDEXA
guedexado v. GVEDEXA

GVERFANO GVERO (GVEVO)

 ${\bf GVERRA}$

guerrilla v. GVERRA guerta v. GVERTO

GVERTO GVESA GVESCA

GVESPED (HOSPEDAR) guespeda v. GVESPED

GVESSO GVETE GVEVO GVIA

guiar v. GVIA
GVIJA (AGVIJA)
gvijarral v. AGVIJA
guijarrazo v. GVIJA
guijarrillo v. GVIJA
guijarro v. GVIJA; AGVIJA

GVILLA (GVILLOTE)
GVILLOTE (GVILLA)

Guimaraez v. GVIMARANES

GVIMARANES
GVINDA
GVINDALERA
GVINDALETA

guindar v. GVINDALETA

GVINEA GVINEO GVIÑAR GVIPVZCOA

GVIRNALDA (AMARANTO)

GVISA GVISADO

GVISANDO (TOROS DE GVISANDO)

guisar v. gvisa; gvisado gvitarra (vigvela) guitarrero v. gvitarra guitarrilla v. gvitarra

GVITON 1, 2

guizne v. GVIÑAR GVLA (GOLA) guloso v. GVLA gulloria v. GOLFO GVMENA GVRBION GVRRION GVRVPERA (ARRITRANCA) gusanillo v. gysano GVSANO HAMACA GVSTAR

H

GYMNOSOPHISTAS

 \mathbf{H} HA HABAR HABLA HABLAR hablilla v. HABLA

GVSTO GVZMAN

HACA (HACANEAS; FACA) HAÇALEJAS

HACANEAS (FACANEA)

HACERA HACES насна 1

HACHA 2, S. HACHONES

HACHAZO

HACHERO (HACHA 2) HACHONES

hachuela v. HACHA 2 HADA (HADO; FADAS) hadada v. HADA

hadado v. HADO HADO

hadrollero v. HADROLLA

HALA 1, 2 HALAGALA

HADROLLA

HALAGAR HALAGO HALAGVEÑO HALCIONES HALCON HALDA HALIFA HALLAR HALLAZGO

hamadryades v. Dryades

HAMBRE HAMBREAR HAMBRIENTO HAMECES HANDRAJO HANEGA

HANEGADA (FANEGA)

HARAGAN HARAMBEL ·HARAPIEÇOS HARAPO HARBAR HARDA HARDALES HARINA

harinero v. HARINA

HARIZA

HARNERO (CRIVO)

HARO

HARON (HARAGAN)

HARONEAR HARPA (CITARA)

HARPADO HARPAR HARPIAS HARPILLERA HARPOCRATES

HARPON

HARRE (HARON; ALQVERQVE)

harriero v. Harre

hartapuerco v. Chavacano

HEBREOS

HEBRERO 1

HERRON

HEBRERO 2 (err. por HERRERO) s.

HARTAR HECHIZAR hartazga v. harto 2 hechizera v. HECHIZAR **HARTO** 1, 2 hechizo v. HECHIZAR hartura v. Harto 2 HECHO (HAZIENDA) HECHVRA (HAZIENDA) HASTA HASTIO (FASTIDIO) hedentina v. Hedor HATACA HEDER hatillo v. HATO hediondez v. HEDOR hediondo v, hedor HATO HAVA HEDOR HAYA 8. HADROLLA HELE HAZ 1, 2 (HACES; HAVA; FAZ) HELEBORO haza v. haz 2; qviñon HELGA heliogabolo v. несевого hazaleja v. HAZ 1 HAZAÑA heliotropia v. CHICORIA hazañero v. HAZAÑA; HAZIENDA heliotropo v. GIRASOL HAZCONA HEMBRA hazedor v. HAZIENDA HEMENCIA hazendado v. HAZER 1; HENARES HAZIENDA HENCHIMIENTO hazendarse v, HAZIENDA HENCHIR (HINCHAR) hazendilla v. HAZIENDA HENDEDVRA hazendoso v. HAZER 1; HENDER HAZIENDA HENDERSE HAZER 1, 2 s. HACALEJAS henil v. HENO HAZER 3, S. HAZES HENO hazera v. HAVA henogil v. CENOGIL; AHINOJARSE hazerico v, HAZ 1 henz v. HENS HAZES HAZEZILLA HEÑIR her v. HAZER 3 HAZIA HAZIENDA hera v. ERA 1 HAZINA HERACLITO hazinar v. HAZINA HERALDO HE (HELE) HERBOLARIO HEBER HERCVLES HEREDAD HEBRA heredamiento v. HEREDAD HEBBAISMO

HEREDAR

HEREGE (EREGE)

heredero v. HEREDAR; HEREDAD

heregia v. HEREGE; CISMA

herencia v. HEREDAR

HERESIARCA

HER

HERIDA

HERIR

HERMAFRODITO (ANDROGENO;

EMAFRODITO)

hermandad v. HERMANO

HERMANO 1, 8. ERMAPHRODITO

HERMANO 2

hermano del trabajo v. GANAPAN

hermaphrodito v. ERMAPHRO-

DITO

HERMOSA

hermosear v. HERMOSA

HERMOSO

hermosura v. HERMOSA

herodio v. GIRIFALTE

HERRADA

HERRADOR

HERRAR 1, 2, 3 (CLAVO)

HERREN

HERRENAL

HERREÑAL

HERRERIA

herrero v. Hebrero 2

HERRON (DISCO)

HERRVMBRE

HERVATVM (ERVATV)

HERVIDERO

HERVIR

Hesperia v. ESPERIA

HESPERIDES HESPERO

HESPERO

hetria v. BEHETRIA

HEVILLA

hevilleta v. HEVILLA

HEZ

HI

HIADOS

HIBERNIA

HIDALGO 1, 2 s. FIDALGO 3

HILDAGO 3 (ESECVTORIA;

FIDALGO; OLLA)

HIDRA

HIDRIA

HIDROMANCIA

HIDROPESIA

HIEL 1, 2

hieme v. Estio

HIENA

HIENDA

HIERARCHIA

HIEROGLIFICO

HIERONIMO

HIEROSOLIMA

HIEROSOLIMITANO

HIERRO 1, 2, 3

HIGA 8. HIGVERA (AOJAR)

higadillo v. HIGADO

HIGADO 1, S. HIERRO 3

HIGADO 2

HIGO (HIGVERA)

HIGVERA

HIJA S. HIJASTRO

HIJASTRO

ніјо 1, 2

HIJODALGO

hijuela v. HIJA

hila v. AHILARSE

hilachas v. HILAS

hilado v. HILANDERA

HILANDERA

HILAR

HILAS

hilaza v. HILANDERA

HILO

hilla hilloron v. FILANDRIAS

HIMNO

HINCAR

HINCHAR

hinchazon v. HINCHAR

HINOJO (CENOGIL)

HINOJOS HINOJOS hinz v. HENS HIPERBOLE

HIPO

HIPOCRESIA HIPOCRITA HIPOMANES

hipomarathro v. HINOJO
HIPOSTASIS
HIPPOCRENE
HIPPOPOTAMO
hisopo v. ISOPO

HISTORIA
historiado v. HISTORIA
historiador v. HISTORIA

HITA

hita v. chita hito 1, 2 hiznaloja hiznalloz hiznalorafe

hoa v. Hola Hobachon Hobero

hocicar v. Hocico

HOCICO

HOCINO (GARGANTA 2)

hociquillo v. Hocico HOGAR (FOGVERA)

HOGAZA

HOGVERA (FOGVERA)

ноја 1, 2

hojaldrado v. HOJALDRE

HOJALDRE HOJARASCA HOJVELAS HOLA HOLGADO

HOLGANÇA

HOLGAR holgazan v. HOLGADO holgin v. Holgado holgura v. Holgado Holocaysto s. Hollin

HOLLAR

HOLLEJO (ARRAAX) HOLLIN (BRVXA) HOMARRACHE

HOMARRACHE
HOMBRE
HOMBRO
HOMECILLO
HOMERO
HOMICIDA
HOMILIA
HOMILIARIO
HOMOVSIO

hondero v. HONDA HONDO (FONDO)

HONDON
HONDRADO
HONDVRA
HONDVRAS

HONDA

honestar v. Honesto honestidad v. Honesto

HONESTO HONGO

HONOR 8. HONDRADO

HONRA
HONRADO
HONRADOR
HONRAR
HONRAS

hoque v. Alboroque Hora (Horas; DIA) HORACAR s. VRACO

HORADADO HORADAR HORADO HORAS

HORAS CANONICAS

HORCA

horcadura v. BRAGADVRA

HORCAJADA

horcajadillas v. HORCAJADVRA HORCAJADVRA (CAVADVRA)

HORCAJO

horcon v. HORCA horgina v. BRVXA

HORMA HORMIGA

HORMIGON

hormiguero v. HORMIGA

HORMIGVILLO

HORNACHOS S. HORNILLOS

HORNACHVELOS

HORNAZA

HORNAZO

HORNERA s. HORNO hornero v. HORNERA

HORNILLO HORNILLOS

HORNO (ALVNADO)

HOROSCOPO

HORQVILLA 1, 2, S. HORCAJO

HORRENDO S. HORROR

HORRERO

HORRIDO S. HORRENDO

HORRO HORROR

HORTALIZA HORTELANO

HORTERA

HORTIGA HORTIGOSA

HORTIGVILLA

HOSANNA HOSCO

HOSPEDAR

hospederia v. Hospedar

hospicio v. Hospedar; Espita-

LERO

HOSPITAL (ESPITAL)

hospital de San Anton, v. gafo hospital de San Lazaro v. gafo

hospitalidad v. Espitalero

hostal v. Hospital hostalero v. Hospital

HOSTE

hosteria v. Hospital Hostia (Hostiario)

HOSTIARIO

HOSTIGAR (FVSTA) hostigo v. FVSTA

HOTO HOVERO

HOYA 8. HOJVELAS HOYO 8. HOYA

HOZ 1, 2 (HOCINO; GARGANTA 2)

hozar v. Hocico hozicar v. Besvear hozico v. Labeones hozino v. Hoz 2hucha v. Byche

НИСНОНО НУЕСО

HVELGA (HOLGADO)

HVELGAS HVELGO HVELVA

HVELLA (HOLLAR)

HVERCO

HVESCA (GVESCA)

huesped v. ESPITALERO; GVESPED; HOSPEDAR huespeda v. ESPITALERO

HVESTE HVIR HVIRSE

humanarse v. HVMANO humanidad v. HVMANO

HVMANO

humazo v. HVMO

HVMEDAD

HVMEDO (HVMEDAD)

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humildad v. HVMILDE

HVMILDE HVMILLACION

HVMILLADERO humillarse v. HVMILDE humipeta v. GAVILAN

HVMO
HVNDIR
HVNGRIA
HVRACAN
HVRAÑO

hurgon v. HVRGAR hurgonero v. HVRGAR

HVRON HVRRACA

HVRGAR

hurtadillo v. HVRTADO

HVRTADO

HVRTAR (HVRTO; HVRTADO)

HVRTO (HVRTAR)

HVSMAR HVSO

huyda v: HVIRSE
HVZIA s. HVCHOHO
hydro v. HIDRA
hvdromeli v. ALOXA

HYPERBOREO s. HIPERBOLE hypostatica v. HIPOSTASIS

HYPOTHECA HYPOTHESIS

I (consonante = J)

T

IABALAQVINTO

IACA
IACINTO
IACO
IACOB
IACOBITA

IACOBO IAEN IAEZ

iaharrar v. IAHARRO

IAHARRO IALDE IALEA IALON IAMAS

IAMBAS

IANO

IAMON IANDVLILLA

IAQVE
IAQVETA
IAQVETA
IARA
IARCIAS
IARDIN

IARRA 1, 2, s. IARREAR iarrazo v. IARRA 1

IARREAR

iarretar v. IARRETE

IARRETE

IARRETERA 1, 2

IARRO 1, 2 (IARREAR)

IASAR IASPE

iaspide v. IASPE

IATANCIA

iatancioso v. IATANCIA iatarse v. IATANCIA

IAVLA

iavalena v. IAVALI

IAVALI

IAYAN 8. IAHARRO Iayme v. diego

IAZMIN
IERVSALEM
IESVITAS
IESVS
IO

Ioan v. IVAN

IOFRE
IOGE
IOGLAR
IOLITO
IONIOLI
IORDAN
IORFE

IORGINA (BRVXA)

IORNADA
IORNAL
IORRO
IOSEPH 1

IORGE

IOSEPH 2, s. 10

IOTA

ioven v. IVVENTVD IOYA s. IOGLAR ioyante v. IOYA IOYEL s. IOYA iovero v. IOYEL

IVAN
IVANETES
iuba v. IVBON

iubeteria v IVBONCILLO iubetero v. IVBONCILLO

IVBILAR

IVBILEO IVBILO IVBON

IVBONCILLO IVCAR

iudaico v. IVDIO

iudaismo v. IVDIO

iudaizar v. 1vd10

IVDAS

iuderia v. IVDIO IVDICATVRA

iudicial v. IVDICATYRA iudiguelo v. IVDIO

IVDIO

IVEGO 1, 2

IVEZ 8. IVDIO

IVGATON

iuglar v. IVGATON

IVGO
IVGOSIDAD
IVGVETE
IVLEPE
IVLIAN
IVLIO

iulios v. IVLIO

IVLO
IVMENTO
IVNCADA
IVNCIA
IVNCO

Iundulillo v. IVNVLA

IVNIO
IVNQVERA
IVNQVILLO
iunta v. IVNTAR

IVNTAR
IVNTERA
IVNTVRA
IVNVLA
IVRA

iuraderia v. IVRADO

IVRADO

IVRAMENTARSE IVRAMIENTO

IVRAR
IVRISCONSVLTO
IVRISDICION

IVRO

IVSBARBA 1, 8. IOTA

IVSBARBA 2, s. IVRISDICIO N

IVSTA

IVSTICIA (IVSTO 1)

IVSTICIERO

iustificarse v. IVSTO 2

IVSTO 1, 2

IVVENAL S. IVVENTVD
IVVENTVD S. IVSBARBA 1

IVYZIO 8. IVGATON
IVZGADO (IVZGAR 1)
iuzgador v. ivdicatyra
IVZGAR 1, s. IVEZ
IVZGAR 2

I (vocal, y consonante = Y)

i (conj., = y), s. ivzgado

IACER
IANTAR
IAÑEZ
IBERIA
IBERNIA
IBIÇA
IBIS

Ibiza v. ibiça, iviza

ICONES

TA

ICONOMACHIOS

iconoma $\cos v$. Imagen

IDA 1

IDA 2, s. IR

IDEA IDIOMA

idiota v. Idioma

idolatra v. idolo idolatria v. idolo

IDOLO IDRA

iduana v. ADVANA

IDVBEDA IEDRA IEGVA

IEGVADA IEGVERIZO

ielme v. іеlmo

IELMO
IELO
IEMA
IEPES

IERNO IERTO

IERVA 1, 2

IERVO IESO IEZGOS

IGLESIA IGNACIO

ignavia v. CALANDRIA

IGNOMINIA

ignominioso v. Ignominia

IGNORANCIA IGNORANTE IGNORAR IGVAL IGVALADA IGVALAR

I. H. S. v. CHRISTIANO

 $\begin{array}{c} \text{IJADA} \\ \text{IJADEAR} \end{array}$

ijar v. IJADEAR ilacion v. INFERIR

ILIBERIA ILICITO

iluminacion v. ILVMINAR iluminador v. ILVMINAR

ILVMINAR
ILVSION
ILVSTRAR
ILVSTRE 1, 2
ILLESCAS
IMAGEN

imaginable v. IMAGINACION

IMAGINACION

imaginar v. IMAGINACION imaginario v. LABRAR

imaginativo v. IMAGINACION

IMAN (CALAMITA)

IMITAR
IMMORAL
IMPACIENCIA
IMPASSIBLE

incapaz v. CAPAZ

incendario v. ENCENDER

incendio v. ENCENDER

impavido v. PAVOR INCESTO S. INCONVENIENTE impedimento v. IMPEDIR incestuoso v. Incesto INCIENSO (ENCIENSO) IMPEDIR IMPELER INCLERTO incitador v. INCITAR imperar v. IMPERIO imperfeccion v. IMPERFETO incitamiento v. INCITAR IMPERFETO INCITAR imperial v. IMPERIO; inclinacion v. Inclinar ALMIRANTE INCLINAR IMPERIO INCLITO incluir v. INCLVSO 1 impertinencia v. IMPERTINENTE IMPERTINENTE inclusive v, incluse 1 INCLVSO 1, s. INCLITO impetra v. IMPETRAR INCLVSO 2 IMPETRAR incomodidad v. соморо IMPETV IMPLACABLE incomparable v. Comparar inconsideracion v. INCONSIDE-IMPONER importancia v. Importante RADO INCONSIDERADO IMPORTANTE IMPORTAR inconstancia v. Constancia; IMPORTVNAR INCONSTANTE importuno v. IMPORTVNAR INCONSTANTE INCONTINENTI (CONTINENTE) IMPOSICION INCONVENIENTE (CONVENIR) IMPOSSIBLE impotencia v. IMPOTENTE INCORDIO S. INADVERTENCIA IMPOTENTE (BVBAS) IMPRESSION incorregible v. Corregir incredulidad v. INCREDVLO impresso v. IMPRESSION impressor v. IMPRESSION INCREDVLO imprimir v. Impression increible v. INCREDVLO IMPRVDENCIA incurable v. CVRAR impulso v. Impeler incurrir v. CVRSO indeclinable v. DECLINAR IMPVTAR inabil v. ABIL INDETERMINABLE (DETERMINAR) inabilitar v. ABIL INDIA inabitable v, ABITAR indiano v. INDIA INADVERTENCIA (ADVERTENCIA) indiciado v. INDICIO inadvertido v. INADVERTENCIA; INDICIO ADVERTENCIA INDICION

INDIFERENTE

indigestible v. INDIGESTO

indigestion v. INDIGESTO

112

INDIGESTO 1, S. DIGESTOS

INDIGESTO 2

indignacion v. Indignarse

INDIGNAR INDIGNARSE

indio v. INDIA

INDISCRETO INDISOLVBLE

indisposicion v. Indispuesto;

DISPONER

INDISPVESTO (DISPONER)

INDIVISIBLE INDIVISO

INDVCIR S. INDVSTRIADO

INDVLGENCIA INDVSTRIA INDVSTRIADO

industriar v. Industriado industrioso v. Industria

INEFABLE INES

INESTIMABLE (ESTIMAR)

INEVITABLE

infamar v. Infamia

INFAME INFAMIA

infanta v: INFANTE

INFANTADO

INFANTE (SOLDADO) infanteria v. INFANTE

INFANZON

infelicidad v. Feliz

INFERIOR

inferioridad v. Inferior

INFERIR

infernal v. INFIERNO infernar v. INFIERNO

INFICIONAR

infidelidad v. INFIEL

INFIEL
INFIERNO

INFIMO S. INFERIOR

INFINIDAD

INFINITO

inflamacion v. Inflamar

INFLAMAR

informacion v. INFORMAR;

FORMAR

informante v. INFORMAR;

FORMAR

INFORMAR (FORMAR)

informe v. INFORMAR; FORMAR

INFORTVNADO

INFORTVNIO (FORTVNADO) infructuoso v. FRVTA

INFVNDIR INFVSION

infuso v. INFVNDIR INGALATERRA

INGAS '

ingeniero v. INGENIO

INGENIO

ingenioso v. INGENIO ingerir v. ADOPTAR

INGLE INGVINA

INHABIL s. IMPVTAR (INABIL) inhabilidad v. INHABIL inhabilitar v. INHABIL;

INABILITAR

INHIESTA

inhiesto v. INHIESTA

inhumanidad v. INHVMANO

INHVMANO

iniquidad v. INIQVO

INIQVO INIVRIA INIVRIAR

injuriador v. INIVRIAR injurioso v. INIVRIAR injusticia v. INJVSTO

INJVSTO INMOBIL INMORTAL INMVNDICIA INSVLSO
INMVNDO INSVLTO

INMVNIDAD integridad v. ENTERO

innovacion v. Innovar intencion

INNOVARintensive v. INTESIVOINNVMERABLE s. INTRODUCIRintentar v. INTENCION

INOBEDIENTE intento v. INTENCION INTERCACIA

INOCENTE INTERCADENCIAS
INOJOS INTERCALAR (BISI

INOJOS INTERCALAR (BISIESTO)

INQVIETADOR INTERCEDER

inquietar v. INQVIETADOR intercesion v. INTERCEDER

INQVIETO INTERESADO

inquietud v. inquieto interesal v. interese

INQVILINO INTERESARSE
INQVIRIDION (ENCHIRIDION) INTERESE
inquiridor v. INQVIRIR INTERIN
INQVIRIR INTERIOR

inquisicion v. inquirir interno s. intimo

inquisidor v. Inqvirir Interpretar Insaciable Interprete

inscripcion v. ESCRIVANIA 2 INTERPRETES inserto v. ENXERTO INTERROGANTE

INSIGNE INTERROGAR
INSIGNIA INTERROGATORIO
INSIPIENTE INTERRVMPIR
insolencia v. INSOLENTE INTERVALO

insolencia v. Insolente Intervalo intervencion v. Intervenir

inspiracion v. Inspirar; Intervenir
Espirityal Intesivo

INSPIRAR (ESPIRITVAL) INTESTINOS 8. INTERNO INSTANCIA intimacion v. INTIMAR

INSTANCIA INTIMACION
INSTANTE INTIMAR
INSTINTO INTIMO
INSTITVIR INTITVLAR
INSTITVTA INTREPIDO
instituto v. INSTRVIR INTRICADO

instruccion v. INSTRVIR intricar v. INTRICADO

INSTRVIR INTRINSECO

INSTRUMENTO introduccion v. INTRODUCIR;

INSVFRIBLE INTERRVMPIR INSVFRIDO INTRODUCIR

INVENTARIAR

introductor v. Introducir introito v. Introducir intruso v. Introducir intybia v. ENDIBIA INVENCION (INVENTAR) invencionero v, inventar INVENTAR

INVENTARIO inventor v, inventar invernadero v. INVERNAR INVERNAR S. INVIERNO invernizo v. Invernar

INVIDIA INVIDIAR INVIERNO

inviolable v. VIOLAR

INVISIBLE

invocacion v. INVOCAR

INVOCAR

10

ipocras v. NIEVE

IPOCRITA

IRTRA

IRACVNDIA

IRACVNDO (IRACVNDIA)

IRINEO iris v. LIRIO

IRLANDA (HIBERNIA) irlandes v. IRLANDA

TRONIA

IRREGVLAR

irregularidad v. irregular

irremisible v. REMITIR

IRREPARABLE

irrevocable v. Revocar

ISABEL ISAGOGE

Iscariotes v. Escariote

isiaco v. ISIS ISIDORO

Isidro v. ISIDORO

ISIS ISLA

isleno v. ISLA

ISOPILLO 1SOPO 1, 2 ISRAEL ISRAELITA ITALIA

ITALIANO ITALICA ITALO ITEM ITERICIA ITINERARIO IVGADA IVGO

IVIZA S. IVNQVERA iungir v. vñir

IVNQVE IVNQVERA IVNTA 1, 2

iuntar v. IVNTA 1 iuntera v. IVNTA 2

IVSO TZA IZAGA

IZNALLOZ (HIZNALLOZ)

IZNATORAPH

IZQVIERDO (EZQVERRA)

J (véase también I)

jacerino v. Cota 1 ialea v. CIDRA jambas v. LINTEL jaqueta v. IACO jarrear v. ESCANCIAR iarretera v. CENOGIL jazer v. HOLGAR io v. HARRE jogar v. HOLGAR

jorgin v. BRVXA
jornada v. DIETA 3
jostrado v. VIROTE 1
jubileo v. CVERNO
judiguelo v. FASOLES;
FRISOLES; PESOLES
juego troyano v. CAÑA
jugarse v. IVEGO 2
jumento v. ASNO
justicia v. IVSTICIERO

K

kalendarias v. Anales Kyrie eleyson

 \mathbf{L}

L

LABARO (ESTANDARTE)

LABEONES LABERINTO

labia v. LABEONES

LABIO (LABEONES; BOÇAL)

LABOR

LABRADOR (LABOR)
labradora v. LABRADOR
labrança v. LABOR
labrante v. LABRAR
LABRAR (LABOR)
LACAYO (ESPVELA)

lacerado v. LACERIA 1, 2

LACERIA 1

LACERIA 2, S. LAZARO

LACRA
LACRE
LADERA
LADILLAS

LADINO (LATIN; GRECIZAR)

LADO LADRAR

ladrido v. Ladrar

LADRILLADO

ladrillazo v. LADRILLADO ladrillejo v. LADRILLADO

LADRILLO LADRON

ladroncillo v. Ladron

LADRONERA (LADRON; ALCAN-

CIA; BVCHE)
LADRONICIO

LAGAÑA LAGAÑOSO

LAGAR

lagarejo v. LAGAR

LAGARTADO LAGARTERO LAGARTIJA LAGARTO

lagerto v. LAGARTO

LAGO LAGOS

LAGRIMA 1, 2 LAGRIMAL

LAGVNA (LAGO; ESTANCAR)

LAGVNAJOS LAICO

LAMEDOR 1

LAMEDOR 2, S. LAMER

LAMEGO

lamentable v. LAMENTAR lamentacion v. LAMENTAR

LAMENTAR

lamento v. LAMENTAR

LAMER

LAMIAS (BRVXA)

LAMINA

LAMPARA (LAMPARAS)

LAMPARAS

lamparero v. LAMPARAS lamparilla v. LAMPARAS;

CANDELILLA LAMPARON

LAMPAZO

LAMPIÑO

LAMPREA

LAMPVGA

LANA

LANÇA (CAVALLERIZO)

LANÇADA

LANÇADERA LANÇAR (LÂNÇA)

LANCE

lancera v. Alancearse; asta

LANCETA

LANCILLA

LANCISCOT 8. LANGOSTIN

lançon v. Alancearse lancuela v. Lancilla

lanchazo v. lanche

LANCHE LANDRE

LANDRECILLA (SECA)

LANGARVTO LANGOSTA LANGOSTIN

LANGUSTIN

LANTERNA lanudo v. LANILLA

LAPISLAZVLI

LAPITAS

LARDAR (GORDO) lardero v. LARDAR

LARDO LARES

largaria v. largo

LARGO LASAÑA LASCIVIA

lascivo v. lascivia

LASTAR

lastima v. lastimar

LASTIMAR

lasto v. Lastar

LASTRE

lastron v. Lastre

LATERANO

LATIGAZO

LATIGO (LATIGAZO)

LATIN

latinidad v. LATIN

LATON

LATRIA (DVLIA)

LATRINA

LAVD (CORCOBA)

LAVDE LAVREADO

laurear v. Lavreado

LAVREL

lavadero v. LAVAR

LAVAJOS

lavança v. LAVAR

LAVANCO

lavandera v. LAVAR lavandulla v. ESPLIEGO

LAVAR

lavatorio v. LAVAR

LAZARO

lazdrado v. LACERIA 2

LAZO LEAL

lealtad v. LEAL

LEBECHE

lebrada v. LIEBRE

LEBREL

lebron v. LIEBRE lection v. LEER lectica v. CVBA lector v. LEER lechal v. LECHE LECHE (LECHO)

LECHE TREZNA S. LECHIGADA

lechecilla v. LECHE

LECHIGADA .

LECHON LECHVGA

LECHVGVILLAS

LECHVGVINO

LECHVZA LEDESMA LEDO

LEGADO LEGAJO LEGAL

LEER

legia v. ENRVBIAR legible v. LEER

LEGION
LEGISLADOR
LEGISTA
LEGITIMA
LEGITIMAR

LEGO LEGO

LEGON

legoncillo v. LEGON legra v. LEGRAR LEGRAR

LEGVA LEGVMBRE

lenceria v. LENCERO LENCERO 1, s. LEGISLADOR

LENCERO 2, s. LIENÇO

LENGVA 1, 2

lengua de ciervo v. ESCOLO-

PENDRA LENGVADO

LENGVAGE (LENGVA)

LENGVETA LENTEJA LENTISCO

LENTVLOS S. LANCISCOT

leña v. Leño leñador v. Leño

LEÑO LEOCADIA

LEON (CASTILLO)

LEON 1, 2 LEONADO LEONERA LEONERO

leones v. Leon 1 LEPRA (GAFO)

leproso v. LEPRA; GAFO

LERDO
LERIDA
LERNA
LETANIA
LETARGO
LETRA

letrado v. Letra letrero v. Letra letron v. Letra

LETVARIO
letura v. LEER

leuchena v. Castaña

LEVA
LEVADVRA
LEVANTAL
LEVANTAR
LEVANTE
LEVE
LEVIATAN

leviraya v. RAYA 2

LEXIA LEXICON LEXOS

LEY (LEGISLADOR)

LEZVCA LIA 1, 2 liar v. LIA LIBELO LIBERAL

liberalidad v. LIBERAL LIBERTAD s. LIBRE LIBERTAR s. LIBERTAD libertino v. LIBERTAR liberto v. LIBERTAR

LIBITINA LIBRA

LIBRAMIENTO

LIMA 3, 4, 8. LIMON

limadura v. LIMA 1

limar v. lima 1

LIB	118 LIS
librança v. Librar	LIMBO
LIBRAR	limeta v. LIMON
LIBRE (LIBERTAD)	limitacion v. Limite
LIBREA	limitar v. limite
libreria v. librero	LIMITE
LIBRERO S. LIBRO	LIMO
libreta v. LIBRA	LIMON
librete v. brasa	limonado v. LIMON
LIBRILLO	LIMOSNA
LIBRIXA	limosnero v . Limosna
LIBRO	limoso v . Limo
libro de caballeria v . FABVLA	LIMPIADERA
LICENCIA (LICENCIADO)	LIMPIAR (LIMPIO)
LICENCIADO	limpieza v. LIMPIAR
licenciar v. LICENCIADO	LIMPIO
licencioso v. LICENCIADO	linaça v. GOMA; LINAZA
LICITO	LINAGE (HERALDO)
LICOR	LINAJVDO
lichen v . Asno	LINALVE
LID	linar v . LINAZA
lidiador v . LID	LINARES
lidiar v . Lid	LINAZA 8. LINO (LINAÇA)
liebraston v . LIEBRE	LINCE
LIEBRE	LINDE (TERMINO) .
LIENÇO (FAÇOLETO; MAPA)	LINDERA (TERMINO; LINDE)
LIENDRE	LINDO (ALIÑAR; FINO)
LIENTO	LINEA
LIGA (CENOGIL; ALIADOS)	LINO
ligadura v . LIGAR	LINTEL
ligagamba v. LIGA; GAMBA;	linueso v. LINAZA
CENOGIL; AHINOJARSE	LIO 1, 8. LIA
ligallo v. mesta	LIO 2
LIGAR	LIPVZCOA
ligereza v . LIGERO	liquidar v. LIQVIDO
LIGERO	LIQVIDO
ligeruelo v. ligero	LIRA 1, 2 (CITARA; DELIRAR)
ligula v . ESPATVLA	LIRIA
LILIO	LIRIO (LILIO)
LIMA 1, 2	LIRON

LISBOA

LISIAR

LISO

119 LISlisongear v. Lisonja LODO LISONGERO LOGICA logico v. Logi€A LISONJA (LISONGERO) LOGRARSE LISTA listado v. Lista LOGRERO (VSVRA) LISTO LOGRO (LOGRERO; VSVRA) liston v. LISTA LOGROÑO LISVRA loma v. Lomo; cerro LITARGIRIO (ALMARTAGA) LOMBARDA lithagiro v. Almartaga LOMBRIGVERA litigante v. LID LOMBRIZ lomillo v. Lomo LITIGAR (LID) litigio v. LID LOMO LITVRGIA LONGANIZA LIVIANDAD LONGINOS LIVIANO (BOFES) LONJA LIVIANOS LOOR (LOA) LOPE LIXA loquear v. Locura LIZA LIZOS LORA LOA LORCA loable v. LOA LORICA (COTA 1) loar v. Loa LOSA 1, 2 losilla v. losa 1 LOARRE LOBA 1, 2, 3 (LOBADO; loton v. Almez lotos v. Almez BASTARDO) LOBADO LOXA LOBANILLO (TVFO) LVBRICAN (CREPVSCVLO) LOBARRO LVCERO S. LVZ lobo v. loba 1 LVCHA lobo cerval v. LINCE LVCHENTE

LOBREGAT LOBREGO

LOCA S. LOCVTORIO

LOCAL:

logania v. Logano

LOÇANO LOCO LOCOBIN

LOCVRA LOCVTORIO LODAÇAL

LVEGO LVENGO

lueñe v. LVENGO

LVGAR

LVGILLO S. LVZIERNAGA

LVGO LVIS

Luisa v. Lvis LVMBRAL

lumbraria v. Alymbrar LVMBRE (ALVMBRAR)

LVMBRERA (ALVMBRAR) LVMINARIAS (ALVMBRAR)

LVNA

LVNADA (ANCA)

LVNAR LVNARIO

lunatico v. LVNA

LVNES LVPIA

lupino v. LVPIA

LVQVETE LVSITANIA

lustrator v. Ronda

LVSTRE LVSTRO LVTO

LVZ (CREPVSCVLO)
LVZIERNAGA S. LVCERO
LYCAON S. LLOVIZNAR

lycisca v. MASTIN

Ll

ll v. L LLAGA LLAMA

LLAMAMIENTO

LLAMAR

llamarada v. Llama llaneza v. Llano

LLANTA
LLANTAS
LLANTEN
LLANTO

LLARES (MORILLOS; cf. LARES)

LLAVE

llave dorada v. DORAR

LLAVERO

lleco, -a, v. LLECOS

LLEGAR

llenar v. LLENO

LLENO

lleudarse v. Levadyra

lleudo v. LEVADVRA; CENCEÑO

llevadero v. Llevar

LLEVAR

lloradera v. LLORAR lloraduelos v. LLORAR

LLORAR

llovedizo v. LLOVIZNAR

LLOVER
LLOVIZNAR
lluvia v. LLOVER
lluvioso v. LLOVIZNAR

M

M

MAÇA 1, 2 (CEPA)

MACABEOS MAÇACOTE

maçada v. MAÇA 2

MAÇAPAN
MACAR
MACARIO
MACARRONEA
MACARRONES

macarronico v. MACARRONEA

maceador v. MAÇA 2

MACEAR

macero v. maça 2 macizo v. maço 1

MAÇO 1, 2 MAÇORCA MAÇORRAL MACROBIO

MACVLA S. MAGVER

MACHACAR 1

MACHACAR 2, s. MACHO

MACHAMARTILLO

MACHETE

MACHO (HEMBRA)

MACHVCA

machucar v. Machacar 2

MADALENA MADERA

maderada v. MADERA
maderamiento v. MADERA

MADERAR

maderero v. Madera

MADEXA

MADRASTRA S. MADRINA MADRE 1, 2, 3, 4 (HIJA)

MADRESELVA

MADRID

MADRIGAL (MANDRA)

MADRIGVERA

MADRINA (COMADRE)

MADRONO

madroño v. Madrono madrugada v. Madrvgar

madrugador v. MADRVGAR

MADRVGAR

madurar v. Maduro madurez v. Maduro

MADVRO

maestra v. maestro

MAESTRE

maestreracional v. CONTADOR 1

MAESTRESCVELA
maestri v. MAESTRO
MAESTRO 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

(VERDVGO 2)

MAGACEN
MAGANTO
MAGARÇA

MAGESTAD
MAGISTERIO 8. MAGISTRAL

MAGISTRAL 8. MAESTRO 1 magnanimidad v. ANIMAL

MAGNANIMO (ANIMAL) MAGNIFICENCIA

MAGNIFICO

MAGNO MAGO MAGRO

MAGVER

MAHOMA

MAIMONETA S. MAYORANA

maiveta v. fresas

MAIZ

MAJADA

MAJADERILLOS

MAJADERO

majaderuelo v. Bola; Palillos

MAJAR MAJVELA MAJVELO

MAL (GOTACORAL; AOJAR)

MALACHIAS

MALAGA

malcozinado v. cozina

 $\begin{array}{c} \text{MALDAD} \\ \text{MALDEZIR} \end{array}$

maleficio v. MALEFICO

MALEFICO MALETA

maleza v. malino; breña malfetria s. malsin

MALICIA

malicioso v. Malicia

MALINO

malmaridada v. MARIDO malmesor v. ALBACEA malmirado v. MIRAR

MALO S. MAL

malograrse v. LOGRARSE

MALQISTO

MALSIN (DELATAR)
malsinar v. MALSIN

MALTA
MALTRATAR
MALVCO
MALVA
MALVADO

MALVASIA (CANDIÁ) MALVAVISCO (DIALTEA)

MALLA	s.	MALETA	(COTA	1)
MALLO	RCA			

mallorquin v. MALLORCA

MAMANTE

mamanton v. MAMON;

AMAMANTAR

MAMAR

MAMELYCOS

MAMON

MAMONAR 1, 2

MAMOTRETO

mamparo v. Manecillas

MAMPESADA 8. MANECILLAS

MRMPOSTERIA 3, s. MAMPESADA MAMPOSTERIA 1, s. MAMOTRETO

MAMPOSTERIA 2 s. SILLAR

MAMPOSTEROS

mampuesto v. Mamposteria

man v. manecillas

MANA (MIEL)

MANADA 1, 2 (BRANCADA)

manantial v. Manar

MANAR

MANÇANA

MANÇANARES

MANÇANILLA (AMARANTO)

MANÇANILLAS

MANÇANO

 ${\bf MANCARSE}$

MANCEBA

MANCEBIA

MANCEBO

MANCERA (ESTEBA)

MANCILLA

MANCO

MANCHA 1, 2, 3

manchar v. Mancha 1

MANCHEGO

manda v. MANDAR

MANDADERA

mandado v. MANDAR

MANDAMIENTO

MANDAR

MANDATO

MANDIL 1, S. MANDAMIENTO

MANDIL 2, 3

MANDILETE S. MANDADERA

mandoble v. MANECILLAS

mandon v. MANDAR

MANDRA

MANDRAGORA

MANDRON

MANEAR S. MANIATAR

(MANEOTA)

MANECILLAS 8. MANO

manejar v. MANEJO

MANEOTA

MANERA 1, 2

MANESTRAL (ARTERO 1)

MANGA 1, 2, 3

MANGANILLA

mangeta v. CRISTAL

MANGO

MANGONADA

mangorrero v. MANGO

manguillo v. MANGA 3

maniaco v. MANOTADA;

AMAÑARSE

maniatar v. MANIRROEO

MANIDA

MANIFESTACION

MANIFESTAR

MANIFIESTO

MANIJA (CORAL)

MANILLAS (AXORCAS)

MANIPVLO

MANIQUEOS

MANIRROTO S. MANOTADA

(MANECILLAS)

MANIRSE

MANJAR (BLANCA)

MANLIEVE

MANNA S. MAMPOSTEROS

MANO

MANOJO (HAZEZILLO)

MANOPLA

MANOTADA

manquadra v. IVRAMIENTO manquedad v. MANCARSE

MANRIQVE MANSEDVMBRE

MANSO

mansuefacto v. manso

mansueto v. Manso

MANTA 1, 2 MANTECA 1, 2

mantecon v. manteca 2

MANTELES

MANTELETE S. MANTELLINA

MANTELLINA
MATENER 1, 2
MANTENIMIENTO

manteo v. manto 1

MANTILLAS

MANTINIENTE (MANECILLAS)

MANTO 1, 2

manton v. Manta 2

MANVAL
MANVMISION
MANVTENCION

MANZER 1, S. MANCEBIA

MANZER 2 MANZERA 1, 2 MANZILLA

MAÑA

MAÑANA 1, 2

MAÑERA

mañeruela v. HACA mañoso v. MAÑA

MAPA

MAQVEDA MAQVI

MAQVILA

maquilero v. MAQVILA

MAQVINA

maquinar v. MAQVINA

MAR

123

MARAÑA

MARAÑON

MARAVEDI MARAVILLA

maravillarse v. MARAVILLA

 ${\bf MARBELLA}$

MARCA 1, 2, 3

 $\mathop{\mathbf{MARÇALAGA}}_{\overset{\circ}{\bullet}}$

marcar v. marca 3 marco (marca 3)

MARÇO

MARCHALES

MARCHAR

MARCHENA MARCHITARSE

MAREA 1, S. MAR

MAREA 2

marear v. MARINERO

MAREARSE MARETA

MARFIL (ELEFANTE)

MARFODIO

MARGARITA (ALJOFAR; ELENCO)

MARGARITA MARGEN MARGINAR MARHOJO

MARIA MARICON

maridillo v. Brasa

MARIDO

marimacho v. Maricon marimaricas v. Maricon

MARIN S. MARINERO

MARINA

MARINERO S. MAREARSE marino v. MARINERO

MARIOLO MARIPOSA MARISCAL

mariscas v. HIGO

MATA

124

maritimo v. Marinero Marjal

MARJAL MARLOTA MARMOL

MAR

MARQUES (MARCA 1)

MARQVESITA MARQVESOTA

marrana v. Marrano

MARRANO MARRAR MARRAS MARRIDO

marro v. Marrar; Amarras

marron v. Marrar

MARRVVIO MARTA 1, 2 MARTE MARTILLO MARTIN

MARTINA MARTINETE

martiniega v. MARÇALAGA

MARTIROLOGIO

MARTOS MAS

MASA (MASAR)

MASAR MASCAR

mascara 1, 2 (caratula) mascarilla v. enmascarados masecoral s. mascara 2:

(IVEGO 2)

masegicomar v. IVEGO 2

MASICORAL (CORAL)

MASTIL
MASTIN
MASTRANTO
MASTRATES
MASTRESALA
MASTVERÇO

MATACHIN MATADERO

MATADOR

matadura v. matar 2 matafaluga v. matalavga

MATALAVGA (ANIS) MATALOTAGE

MATANÇA

MATAR 1, 2, 3 (MATASIETE)

matarazo v. Colchon matasiete (siete)

MATE

MATEMATICA

MATERIA (MATERIAS)

MATERIAL MATERIALIS MATERIAS

MATERNAL S. MADRASTRA

MATIZ MATIZAR

MATORRAL 8. MATA

MATRACA (TRATO 2)

matraquista v. MATRACA

MATRICVLA

matricularse v. MATRICVLA

MATRIMONIAL MATRIMONIO

MATRIZ 1, S. MATERNAL

MATRIZ 2
MATRONA
MAVLLAR

mausoleo v. ARTEMISA

maxa v. GRANZAS

maxagranças v. GRANZAS maxcara v. ENMASCARADOS

MAXCARAQVE
MAXILLA
MAXMORDON
MAYA S. MAYO

mayacantha v. IVSBARBA 2

MAYO S. MAHOMA

MAYOR

MAYORAL

MAYORANA S. MAYORDOMO;

(ALMORADVX)

MAYORAZGO

mayordomia v. MAYORDOMO

MAYORDOMO

maytinante v. MAYTINES

MAYTINES MAZA

MAZACOTE

mazagatos v. GATEAR

MAZARI

mazero v. BEDEL

MAZIZO MAZMORRA

maznar v. capar

MAZORCA

MEAJA (CAPILLA 1)

MEAR MECANICO

MECER

MECHAR.

MECHERO MECHINALES

MECHOACAN

MEDALLA (EMBLEMA)

MEDELLIN

MEDIANA

MEDIANIA

mediano v. MEDIANA

MEDIAR MEDIAS

MEDICINA (MELECINA)

medicinable v. MEDICINA

medicinal v. MEDICINA
MEDICO (CIRVJANO; FISICO)

MEDIDA

MEDINA 1, 2, 3

MEDIO 1, 2 s. MEDICINA

MEDIOCRIDAD (MEDIANIA)

MEDIR

MEDITERRANEO

MEDIRSE

MEDBANO

MEDRAR

MEDVLA

MEGA

MEGERA

MEJOR

mejora v. mejorar

MEJORADA MEJORANA

MEJORAR

melado v. meloso

MELANCOLIA

melancolico v. MELANCOLIA

melancolizarse v. MELANCOLIA

melarchia v. AXENVZ melarchia v. MELANCOLIA melarchico v. MELANCOLIA

MELCOCHA

melcochero v. MELCOCHA

MELCHISEDEC

MELECINA (CLYSTEL)

MELENA (CABELLO)

MELENDEZ MELIBEA

MELIFLVO (MELOSO)

MELINDRE

melindroso v. Melindre

meliteo v. MALTA

MELOCOTON

MELODIA

MELON (ESCRITO)

MELONAR

MELOSO S. MIEL

MELLA

mellar v. MELLA

MELLIZAS

MELLIZOS (GEMELOS)

membrar v. REMEMBRAR

MEMBRARSE MEMBRILLAR

MEMBRILLO (CODON)

MEMBRVDO 1

MEMBRVDO 2, s. MIEMBRO

MEMORABLE

MEMORIA (MEMORIOSO)

MEMORIAL MEMORIOSO MENAGE

MENCIA MENCION

MENDIGAR
MENDIGO

mendiguez v. MENDIGAR

MENDO

MENDOÇA MENDRVGO MENEAR MENEO MENESTER

menesteroso v. MENESTER

MENESTRA

MENESTRAL (MANESTRAL)

MENESTRIL MENGALA MENGVA

menguado v. MENGVANTE

MENGVANTE MENGVAR

menina v. FATIMA

MENINO
MENIQVE
MENJVI
MENOR

Menorca v. Mallorca

MENOS MENSAGE

mensageria v. MENSAGE

MENSAGERO MENTAL MENTAR

126

MENTE

MENTECATO

MENTIR

mentiroso v. MENTIR menudear v. MENVDO menudillos v. MENVDO

MENVDO MEOLLO

mercadante v. MERCAR mercader v. MERCAR

mercado v. mercar; feria 1

mercaduria v. MERCAR mercancia v. MERCAR mercante v. MERCAR

MERCAR

MERCED 1, 2 (DIOS; GVEVO)

mercenario v. MERCED merceria v. MERCERO

MERCURIAL
MERCURIALES
MERCURIO

merchan v. MERCAR

MERECER

merecido v. MERECER

MERENDAR MERETRIZ MERIDA

merienda v. MERENDAR

MERINA

MERINA S. MIRA
MERINDAD V. MERINO

MERINO

MERLVZA (FRESCO)

MERMA MERMELADA MERO MES

mesa franca v. BANQVETE

mesada v. MES

MESAR MIEL .

MESEGVERO 8. MIES MIELGA

MESIAS MIEMBRO

MESMO MIENTES

MESNADA (AMESNADORES) MIERA

MESON MIERCOLES
MESOPOTAMIA MIES

MESOPOTAMIA

MESSANA S. MESA miezgado v. FRESAS

MESTAMIGAmestengo v. MOSTRENCOMIGAJAMESTIZOMIGAJON

mesto migrana v. Axaqveca

MESVRA MIGVEL

metafora v. METAPHORA MIJO

METAMORPHOSIS MIL 1, 2

METANEA MIL EN RAMA

METAPHORA MILAGRO

METATHESIS MILAGROSO

METEOROSMILANMETERmilanes v. MILANMETODOMILANO (GAVILAN)

METONIMIA MILANOS
METOPAS MILICIA
METRICAR V. METRO MILITANTE
METRO MILITAR
METROPOLI MILLA
METROPOLI MILLA
MEXICO MILLON

mexilla v. MAXILLA MIMBRE

MEZCLA mimbrera v. MIMBRE
MEZCLAR . MIMO

MEZQVINO MINA (MINERO)

 MEZQVITA
 MINERO

 mezzana v. MESSANA
 MINERVA

 mezzena v. MESSANA
 MINIMO

 miacantha v. BRVSCO;
 MINISTERIO

ESPARRAGO MINISTRO
MICAEL MINOTAVRO
micer v. DON MINVCIAS
MICO MINVTOS
MIDAS MIÑERVELOS

MIEDO MIÑO

MIO

. mochacherria v. моснасно

128

MIRA S. MIRADOR

MIRABOLANOS

MIRADOR S. MIRAR

MOCHILA (CAPA)

mochilero v. Mochila

MIRADOR 8. MIRAR MOCHIL

MIRAFLORES MOCHIN (BOCHIN)

MIRAMAMOLIN MOCHO

miramiento v. Mirar MOCHVELO
MIRANDA MODELO
MIRANDILLA MODERAR
MIRAR MODERNO
MIRLA MODO

MIRLADO MODORRA (MODORRO; LETARGO)
MIRRA MODORRO

MODORRO

misa v. missa Modorro
miserable v. miseria Mofa
miseraicas (venas) Mofletes
miseria 1, 2 Mogate

misericordia mogato v. mogate misericordioso v. misericordia mogigato v. Gatear

misero v. miseria mogollon
missa moharrache

MISSAL 8. MIRRA MOHATRA
missario v. MISSAL mohatrero v. MOHATRA

missero v. Missal Moheda

misterio mohinillo v. mohino misterioso v. misterio mohino (Amohinarse)

MISTICO MOHO
MISTVRA MOJAR

MITICAL MOJON (CARBON)

MITRA (COROÇA) MOJONERA
MITRIDATES MOLAMATRIZ
mitridatico v. ANTIDOTO MOLDE

MITRIDATO MOLEGO V. MVELAS

MIZ (EXE 2; GATA; HARRE) MOLER (MVELAS)

mizigato v. GATEAR MOLESTAR

moça v. moço molesto v. molestar mocadero (façoleto) molido v. molimineto moçarave molienda v. molinero

moçarave mollenda v. mollenda v. mollenda v. mollenta mocedad v. moço mollente s. molleta

MOCO (ESCORIA) MOLIMIENTO
MOCO MOLINERO

mocoso v. moco molino (boltear)

MOLLARES montaña v. MONTE MONTAR MOLLEJA MONTARAZ S. MONTEA MOLLENTAR montazgo v. Montes MOLLERA MONTE (MONTILLA) MOLLETA MOLLETE MONTE DE PIEDAD S. MONTES MOMARRACHE MONTEA S. MONTERIA momentaneo v. MOMENTO MONTEMAYOR MOMENTO MONTERA MONTERIA (CAÇADOR) MOMIA MONTERO MOMO MONTERREY MONA MONACILLO (CLERIZON) MONTES MONACORDIO MONTES DE OCA monachillo v. MONACILLO MONTES DE SEGVRA monaguillo v. CLERIZON MONTESA S. MONTON montesino v. Montaraz MONARCA MONTIEL S. MONTESA MONASTERIO monastico v. MONASTERIO MONTILLA MONCAYO MONTON MONCON MONTORO mondadientes v. MONDO montuoso v. Montes mondadura v. MONDO MONVMENTO MONDAR MONVIEDRO MONDEGO moquita v. moco morabitano v. Morabito MONDEJAR MORABITO MONDEJO MORADA

MONDEJAR
MONDEJO
MONDO
MONDOÑEDO
MONDRAGON
MONEDA 1, 2, 3, 4
monedula v. GRAJO

moneria v. MONA

MONFIES MONFORTE

mongana v. badal monipolioo (sic) monjvi

mono v. mona monreal monstro montante MORAL (ALMENDRA; BOBO 1) morar v. morada

morar v. Moral

MORCELLA

MORADO

MORCILLA (MORCON)

morador v. MORADA

MORCILLO
MORCON
MORDAÇA
MORDAZ
MORDER
MORECILLO
MORELLA
MORENA

moreno v. morena motas moreria mote

MORILLOS motejar v. MOTE

MORIR MOTETE

MORISCOS 8. MORO MONTEZVMA

MORISMA 8. MORISCOS MOTILAR

MORMVLLO MOTILON

MORO MOTIN (AMOTINARSE)

MORON MOTIVO

MOROSO motolita v. AGVÇANIEVE

MORRION MOTRICO
MORTAJA MOTRIL
MORTAL MOVEDIZO
MORTANDAD MOVER
MORTERA MOVIBLE
MORTERETE MOVIMIENTO

MORTERVELO MOXI
mortezino v. MORTANDAD MOXICON

MORTVORIO MOXIGATO (MOGATE)
MORVECO MOYON v. MOJON

MOSAICO MOYVELO S. MOJONERA

MOSCA MOZARABE
MOSCADA 8. MOSCATEL MVCETA

MOSCARDA MVCHACHO (MOCHACHO)
moscardon v. MOSCARDA muchedumbre v. MVCHO

MOSCATEL 8. MOSQVEARSE MVCHO
MOSCELLA MVDA
MOSCO v. ALMIZCLE MVDABLE
MOSQVEADOR MVDANZA
MOSQVEARSE (AMOSCADOR) MVDAR

MOSQVETA MVDEXARES
MOSQVETE (ARCABVZ) MVDO

MOSQVETE (ARCABVZ) MVDO
MOSQVETERO MVEBLE

MOSQVITO MVELA 1, 8. MOLER MVELA 2 (MOLER)

MOSTAFA MVELAS
MOSTAZA MVELLE
MOSTO MVERDAGO
mostrador v. MOSTRAR; MVESTRA MVERMO
MOSTRAR MVERTE
MOSTRENCO MVESGA
MOTA MVESO

MVESTRA	MVRGAÑO
muevedo v. MOVER	MVRMVLLO
MVGER	MVRMVRACION
MVGERIEGO	murmurar v. MORMVLLO;
mugeril v. MVGERIEGO	MVRMVLLO
MVGRE	MVRO
mugriento v. MVGRE	MVRRIA ·
MVGRON	MVRTA (ARRAYAN)
MVLA 1	MVRVECO
MVLA 2, s. MVLO	MVSA
MVLADAR	MVSAICO
Myladar	MVSARAÑA (MARAÑA; ARAÑA)
MVLAS	MVSCO
MVLATO	MVSCVLOS
MVLETA 8. MVLA 2	MVSEO
muleto v. MVLA 2	MVSEROLA (AMOHINARSE)
MVLEY	MVSGANO
mulilla v. MVLAS	musgaño v. mvsaraña
mulimariani v. MARIOLO	MVSGO
MVLO (ANA 1; BASTA 2;	MVSLO
BORDON 1)	musquerolo v . Moscatel
MVLTA	mustafa v. Mostafa
MVLTIPLICAR	MVSTIO
MVLTITVD	MUY 8. MVRGON
MVLLIR	myrrha v. MIRRA
mumia v. CARNEMOMIA	myrta v. ARRAYAN
MVNDA	myrto v. ARRAYAN
mundano v. mvndo 2	
MVNDO 1, 2	N
MVNICION	
MVÑECA 1, 2	NABAL
MVÑIDOR	NABEGABLE 8. NAVEGACION
muñon v. mvñeca 1; morcillo;	nabina v. NABO
PANTORRILLA	NABO
MVRALLA	NACAR
MVRCIA	NACARADO
MVRCIANO	NACER
MVRCIEGACO	NACION
murcielago v. mvrciegaco	nacora v . Naçvlas
MVRECILLOS	NAÇVLAS
MVRENA (LAMPREA; ESTANCAR)	NADA
MVRGA	nadador v. NADAR

NAGONA NAVEGACION
NAGVELA NAVEGANTE
NAIADES NAVICHVELO
NAJARA NAVIDAD
nalgada v. NALGAS; LVNADA NAVIO s. NAVE

nalgada v. NALGAS; LVNADA NAVIO s. NAVE
NALGAS NAZARENO

NAO NAZAREO (NAZARENO)

NAOCHEROS NAZARET
NAPEAS NEBEDA
NAPELO NEBLI
NAPOLES NEBLINA

napolitano v. napoles nebrina v. enebro nebrissense v. nebrixa

naranjada v. naranja nebrixa

naranjado v. NARANJA necear v. NECIO naranjal v. NARANJA necedad v. NECIO

NARANJO necesitar v. NECESSIDAD

NARCISO necessaria v. LATRINA

NARDO (SAN BERNARDO; necessarias v. NECESSIDAD

ESPLIEGO) necessario v. NECESSIDAD
NARIGVDO NECESSIDAD

NARIZ (NARIGVDO)

NASA (SARGO)

NECTAR

naso v. Amohinarse nefa (Agva) natas nefas v. Fasta

natillas v. natas negar

NATURA negativo v. NEGAR
NATURA NEGLIGENCIA
NATURAL 1, 2 NEGLIGENTE
NATURALEZA NEGOCIO

NATVRALIZARSE NEGRA
nauclero v. NAOCHEROS NEGRO
NAVFRAGIO NEGVIJON

nauplio v. nave negvilla (agenvz; axenvz)

NAVA NEMA (HILO)
NAVAJA NEMESIS
NAVAJADA NEMON
NAVAJON NENVFAR

NEOMENIA nivelar v. NIVEL
NEOPHYTO NO
NEOTERICOS NOBLE

nepta v. GATERA nobleza v. NOBLE

NEREIDES NOCHE

NERVIO nochebuena v. Noche
Nervio nochebueno v. Noche

nervoso v. Nervio Nofre

NESGA nogada v. Nogal

NETO NOGAL

NETOBRIGA NOLA (CAMPANA)
NEVTRAL NOLITO (FLETE)
NEVTRO nombradia v. Nol

NEVTRO nombradia v. Nombre NEVAR 1, s. NETOBRIGA nombrar v. Nombre

NEVAR 2, s. NIEVE NOMBRE

NI NOMINA (BVLA)
NICODEMVS NOMINALES
NICOLAS NOMINAS
NICHO NONA

NIDAL NONADA (NO; NADA)

NIDO NONE
NIEBLA 1, 2 NONES
NIEGO NOQVE

NIERVO NORDESTEAR
NIESPERO NORMANDIA
nieta v. NIETO NORTE

NIETO NOSOTROS
NIEVA NOSTICOS
NIEVE (NEVAR 2) NOTA
NIGROMANCIA NOTABLE

nigromantico v. NIGROMANCIA; NOTAR
ESCOLAR NOTARIA

NILO NOTARIO (ESCRIVANO)

NINFA NOTICIA

ninfo v. NINFA notificacion v. NOTIFICAR

NINGVNA NOTIFICAR

niña v. Niño notoriedad v. Notorio

niñeria v. NIÑO NOTORIO NIÑO NOTVRNO

niño de la piedra v. ENECHAR novalia v. ROMPER

NISPERO (NIESPERO) novato v. NVEVO

NIVEL NOVEDAD

NOV	134 00
NOVELA	ÑVDO 8. NVCA
novelero v . NOVELA	ñudoso v. ñvdo
NOVENA	
novenario v. novena; novenas	S O
NOVENAS 8. NVEVE	0
NOVENO 1, s. NOVIEMBRE	OBEDECER
NOVENO 2, s. NOVENAS	obediencia v. OBEDECER
NOVES	OBELISCO
NOVIA	OBISPADO
noviciado v. novicio	OBISPALIA
NOVICIO	OBISPILLO 1, 2
NOVIEMBRE	OBISPO
NOVILLO	objection v. objecto
novio v. NOVIA	OBJECTO
NVBADA	objetar v. овјесто
NVBE 1	objeto v. овјесто
NVBE 2, s. NVBLO	OBLACION
nublado v . NVBLO	OBLADA
NVBLO	OBLEA
NVCA	obligacion v . obligar
NVEGADO (BORRAX)	OBLIGAR
NVERA	OBRA
nueso, $-a$, v . NUESTRO	obrada v . GVEBRA
NVESTRA SEÑORA DE ATOCHA 8.	
ATOCHA	obreria v . obra
NVESTRO	obrero v. obra
NVEVAS	obscurecer v. escyrecer
NVEVE	obscurecerse v . oscv \mathbf{r} o
NVEVO	obscuridad v . oscvridad;
NVEZ	OSCVRO
NVEZA	obscuro v. escyrecer;
NVFLA	OSCVRIDAD
NVMANCIA	OBSEQVIAS
NVNCA	obstaculo v. obstar
NVNCIO (EMPLAZADOR)	obstante v. obstar
NVÑEZ	OBSTAR
NVÑO	obstinacion v . obstinado;
NVSCO	OSTINADO
NVTRIA	OBSTINADO
~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~	OCAL

OCAÑA OCASION 1, 2

ÑAFETE S. NADIR

OCASIONADO OJEAR OCEANO OJEO OJERAS OCIDENTE OJERIZA OCIO ociosidad v. ocio OJETE

ocioso v. ocio OJO (ALAMO: AOJAR)

OCRE OLA

OCTAVARIO 8. OCHAVADO olandilla v. BOCACI

OCTVBRE 8. OCHENTA OLEAR OCVPAR OLER

OCVRRIR (CVRSO) OLIGARCHIA OCHAVA OLIMPIA OCHAVADO OLIMPO опо 1, 2 OCHAVO OLITE OCHENTA OLIVA 1, 2 осно ODA OLIVAR odiar v. odio olivo v. oliva

ODIO OLMEDA odioso v. odio OLMEDO ODON OLMO odorifero v. olor OLOR

ODRE oloroso v. Olor

odrina v, odre olvidadizo v. OLIVIDAR

OFENDER OLVIDAR OFERTA S. OFERTORIO OLVIDO

OFERTORIO S. OFRECER 2 olympiada v. OLIMPIA oficial v. oficio olympico v. Olimpia

OFICIAR OLLA (CADOZO; GVADAMALLETE)

OLLADA (OBLADA) OFICINA olleria v, ollero OFICIO

OFICIOSO OLLERO OFRECER 1, 2 OMBLIGO

OFVSCAR ome v. Hombre OGAÑO OMECILLO

omnipotente v. POTENTADO OIDO

OMENAGE

onça 1, 2OIDOR OIR ONDA OJAL ONDEAR

oi

ojarasca v. FAGINA ONOMATOPEYA ojeada v. OJEAR ONTIVEROS

onzeno v. onze

OÑA OÑEZ

OPILACION (CASTAÑA; APILAR)

OPINION OPIO OPONER

OPORTVNO

opositor v. oponer

OPRIMIR OPTICOS

oque v. Alboroque ora<br/> oracion

ORACVLO ORADA orador v

orador v. Oracion

ORAN ORAR

orarium v. estola 2

ORATE

oratorio v. oracion oratorio (capilla 2)

ORBIGO ORCA

ORÇA (ORCA) ORÇVELO

ORDEN (ORDENES)
ORDENAMIENTO
ORDENANCA

ORDENAR

ORDENES 1, 2, 3

ORDEÑAR ORDIATE ORDINARIO

ORDOÑEZ ORDOÑO

OREADES OREAR

OREGANO (ISOPO)

OREJA

orejas de abad v. LASAÑA

OREJONES
OREO
ORFEO

organista v. organo organizar v. organo

ORGANO ORGAZ ORGYLLO

orgulloso v. ORGVLLO oriental v. ORIENTE

ORIENTE
ORIGEN
ORIGINAL
ORIHVELA
ORILLA

orillarse v. ORILLA orillo v. ORILLA

ORIN ORINA

orinal v. Orina orinar v. Orina orines v. Orina Orizonte

ORLA (ORLO)
ORLO
ORNAR
ORO 1, 2
OROMATE

oropel v. oro 2

OROPENDOLA (ITERICIA)

OROPESA

OROPIMIENTO (ARSENICO)
OROZVZ (REGALIZA)
ortelano v. GVERTO
ORTHOGRAPHIA

ORVGA

ORVJO (ARRAAX) osadas v. Aosadas osadia v. osar

OSAR

PACIENCIA

OSARIO paciente v. PACIENCIA: CORNVDO OSCURIDAD S. ESCURECER PACIFICAR OSCVRO PACIFICO OSMA PACTO 080 PACHECO ospederia v. ESPITALERO PADECER ossa v, oso PADILLA ossario v. GVESSO PADRASTRO ossera v. oso PADRE ostia v. ostra PADRINO OSTINADO PADRON 1, 2, 3 ostion v. OSTRA PAGADERO pagador v. PAGAR OSTRA OSTRACISMO (EFESO) PAGAMENTOS OSTROGODOS (GODOS) paganismo v. PAGANO OSVNA PAGANO (PAGAR) PAGAR (PAGADERO) OTEAR otero v. OTEAR pagar en pie v. LVEGO otoñizo v. OTOÑO page de lança v. ESCVDERO OTOÑO otorgada v. Esposas PAGEL OTORGAR pago v. PAGAR; FVENTE OTRO OTVBRE PAJA OVADO (GVEVO) pajada v. PAJA oval v. GVEVO pajar v. PAJA ovalo v. GVEVO paje v. PAGE; BESVGVETE OVAS pajuelas v. PAJA PALA 1, 2 OVEJA PALABRA overa v. GVEVO OVIEDO palabrero v. PALABRA palaciano v. PALACIOS OVILLAR OVILLO (BOLTEAR) palaciego v. PALACIOS oxPALACIO OXALA PALACIOS OXETE PALADAR OXIMIEL paladear v. PALADAR P PALADIN paladino v. PALACIO; P PARLO ESPALADINAR PACER paladion v. BOLONIA

PALAFREN

palafrenero v. PALAFREN

PALAMAÇO PALAMENTA

PALANCA (GANAPAN)
palanquin v. PALANCA

PALENCIA
PALENOVE

paleria v. MADRE 2

palero v. ACEQVIA; MADRE 2

PALESTRA

PALETA 1, S. PALA 2

PALETA 2

PALILLO S. PALO PALIO 1, 2

paliuro v. AZEBO
PALMA 1, 2, 3
PALMADA

PALMARIA
PALMATORIA

palmero v. Palma 3

PALMILLA PALMITO

PALMO (CODO)

PALOMA

palomar v. Paloma

PALOMERA

palomeria v. PALOMA

PALOMILLA 1, 2 (FVMVSTERRAE)

palomina v. PALOMILLA 1;

FVMVSTERRAE palomino v. PALOMA palomo v. PALOMA

PALOTES
PALPAR

palpebra v. сеја

palpitacion v. Palpitar

PALPITAR pallet v. PAJA

palleta v. ALGVAQVIDA

pallete v. Algravida palletero v. Algravida

PAMPANADA
PAMPANAROTA
PAMPANO
PAMPHILO
PAMPLONA
PAN 1

PAN 2 (PANES)

panaderia v. PANADERO

PANADERO

panadizo v. vñero

PANAL
PANARIZO
PANÇA

pancera v. PANÇA

PANCORBA
PANCRACIO
PANDECTAS

PANDERO (ATAMBOR)

PANDILLA PANDORA PANDORGA

panduro v. BANDVRRIA PANDVRRIA (BANDVRRIA)

PANEGIRICO PANELES

panera v. PANADERO

PANES
PANIAGVA
PANIAGVADO
PANILLA

PANIQUESILLO 8. PANARIZO PANIZO 8. PANIQUESILLO

PANIZVELO

panoja v. Bohordo; Espadaña

PANOL PANPLONA

PANTANO (MARJAL)

PANTHEON
PANTHERA
PANTOMINO

PARPANTORRILLA PARADOXA pantuflaço v. PANTVFLVO PARAFRENALES (BIENES) PANTVFLO PARAGRAFO PAÑALES PARAISO pañalon v. PAÑALES PARALIPÓMENON PAÑETES PARALITICO pañicuelo v. FACOLETO PARALOGISMO PAÑO 1, 2 (PAÑETES) PARAMO PAÑOS 1, 2 paranympho v. NINFA paños menores v. BRAGAS PARAPETO PAPA (INFANTE) PARAPHRASIS papada v. PAPO paraphrastes v. Paraphrasis PAPAGAYO (GAYO; REDOMA) PARAR PAPAHIGO PARASCEVE PAPAR (PAPAS) PARASISMO PAPARESOLLA PARASITO PAPARO PARCAS PAPAS 8. PAPASAL 2 PARCIAL (PARTICVLAR) PAPASAL 1 parcionero v, Particular PAPASAL 2, S. PAPIROTE PARCHE papazgo v, Papista PARDAL PAPEL (BIBLIA) pardillo v. PARDO 3 PARDO 1, 2, 3 PAPELES PAPELINA (CARCAX; ALMIRANTE) PAREAR V. PAR papelista v. PAPELES PARECER 1, 2, 3 (PARECIDOS) papelon v. Papeles PARECIDOS papera v. PAPO PARED papilla v. PAPAS PAREDON papillo v. ALMIZCLE pareja v. PARES PAPIROTE parejo v. PARES PARENTELA PAPISTA PAPO (BOHONERO; BVFOS; PARENTESIS PARES S. PAR (NONES) PAPOS) PAPOS PARIAS paridera v. Parir PAR PARA paridero v. Parir PARABOLA PARIENTE parada v. PARAR PARIR (PIEDRA DEL AGVILA) paradera v. Parar PARLAMENTO

PARADIGMA PARLAR paradizo v. VÑERO parleria v. PARLAR parador v. PARAR parlero v. Parlar

parma v. ESCVDO passadizo v. Passar 1 PARNASO PASSADOR 1, 2 paroco v. Perroqvia PASSAMANO passante v. Passar 2 PAROTIDAS PARPADO PASSAPASSA (CORAL; IVEGO 2) PARQVE passaporte v. Passar 1 PARRA (ESPARRANCARSE) PASSAR 1, 2 (PASSO) PARRAFO (PARAGRAFO) PASSARSE 1, 2 parral v. ESPARRANCARSE passas v. Passarse 1 PARRICIDA passatiempo v. Passar 1 parril v. PARRA passear v. Passar 1 PARRILLA (BARRACAS; ESPApasseo v. Passar 1 PASSION 1, 2 RRANCARSE) PARRILLAS PASSIONARIOS passionero v. Passionarios parroquia v. Perroqvia PARTE 1, 2, 3 PASSO (PASSAR 1) PARTERA S. PARIR (COMADRE) PARTESANA S. PARTO PASTAR S. PASTORA particion v. Parte 3 PASTEL 1, 2 pasteleria v. PASTEL 1 PARTICIPAR pastelero v. PASTEL 1 PARTICIPIO PARTICVLA S. PARTE 2 pastillas v. PASTA PASTINACA PARTICVLAR S. PARTICVLA pasto v. PASTAR PARTIDA PARTIDAS PASTOR partido v. PARTE 3 PASTORA partidor v. PARTIDA pastorcica v. PASTORA partija v. parte 3 pastorcilla v. PASTORA PARTO (PARIR; PIEDRA DEL pastorear v. Pastora AGVILA) PATA 1 PARTOS S. PARTERA PATA 2, S. PATO pataca v. PATA 1 PARTVRA patada v. PATA 1 PARVA PASCASIO (PASCVAL; HERRAR) patan v. PATA 1 patear v. PATA 1 PASCVA PASCVAL PATENA 1, 2 PATERNAL S. PATRIMONIO pasillas v. GETA paternidad v. PADRE pasmarse v. Pasmo PASMO patin v. PATIO PATIO S. PATA 2 PASQVIN passada v. Passar 1 patitiesso v. PATA 1 passadero v. Passar 1 PATO

patochada v. PATA 1

PATRAÑA PATRIA

PATRIARCA

patrimonial v. Patrimonio

PATRIMONIO

PATRON patronazgo v. PATRON

patronazgo v. Patron patudo v. Pata 1

PAVLAR PAVSA

pausado v. Pavsa Pavsan

PAVTAR
PAVELLON
PAVES
PAVESA
PAVILO
PAVIMENTO

PAVO PAVON

pavonada v. PAVONEAR

PAVONAR

PAVONEAR (ANADEAR)

PAVOR PAVORDE

pavordia v. PAVOR pavoroso v. PAVOR

PAXARA
PAXARILLA
PAXARO
PAZ

PEAGE
PEAL
PEAÑA

PEBETE

pebrada v. PEBRE

PECA
pecaça v. PEGA

PECADO

PEBRE

pecador v. PECADO

PECADORA

pecante v. PECADO

PEÇON

pecoso v. peca pectoral

PECVLIO (GANADO)

PECVNIA

ресћаг v. РЕСНО ресћего v. РЕСНО

PECHINA
PECHO
PECHVGA
PECHVGVERA
PEDAÇO
PEDAGE
PEDAGOGO
PEDANTE
PEDERNAL
PEDESTAL

pedigueño v. PEDIR

PEDIR PEDO

> PEDORRERAS PEDRADA 1

PEDRADA 2, s. PIEDRA
pedregal v. PEDRADA
pedregoso v. PEDRADA
PEDREÑAL (ARCABVZ)
PEDRERA s. PEDRADA
pedreria v. PIEDRA 4
PEDRERO 1 (PEDRADA)
PEDRERO 2 s. PEDRERA

PEDRO PEER

PEGA 1, 2 (EMPEGAR; HVRRACA)

pegadillo v. BOTANA pegajoso v. PEGAR

PEGAR
PEGASO
PEGVJAL
PEINADOR

PENDENCIA

PENDER

PENDOLA

PENDON

PEINE penetrante v. PENETRAR PELADILLAS PENETRAR peladillo v. MIÑERVELOS PENITENCIA penitenciado v. PENITENCIA PELAGE PELAMBRE penitenciar v. PENITENCIA pelamesa v. Pelea penitente v. PENITENCIA PELAR penoso v. Pena pensamiento v. Pensar PELEA PELECHAR PENSAR pensas v. Despender PELEGRINO PELIAGVDO pensativo v. PENSAR PELICANO PENSION pensionario v. PENSION PELIGRO peligroso v. Peligro PENSIR pelillo v. FLVECO penula v. BERNIA PELITRE PENVRIA PELMAÇO PEÑA Peñafiel v. PEÑA pelmazo v. Apelmazar PELO (CABELLO) Peñaflor v. Peña pelona v. Pelar peñasco v. Peña PELOTA (DOMINGVILLO; FALTA 2; Peñicola v. Peña peñola v. PENDOLA TRINQVETE) PEON PELOTERO peonada v. PEON PELTRE (ESTAÑO) PELVSA PEONÇO PEONIA PELLA pellada v. Pella PEOR pellegeria v. Pelleja peostre v. PRIOSTE pellegero v. Pelleja pepinazo v. PEPINO PELLEJA pepinela v. PIMPINELA PEPINO (COHOMBRO) pellejo v. Pelleja; cvero pellico v. Pelleja PEPIONES PEPITA (FLEMA; GALLINA) PELLIZCAR pellizco v. Pellizcar PEPITORIA PENA PEQVEÑO PERA: PENACHO PENAR PERADA PERAILE (PERCHA) PENCA 1, 2

PERAL

PERAZA
PERCANCES

PERALVILLO

PERCHAS (ARMAR)

perdedizo v. PERDER

PERDER

perdida v. PERDER perdidoso v. PERDER

perdigada v. PERDIGON perdigado v. PERDIGON perdigar v. PERDIGON

PERDIGONES

perdiguero v. PERDIGON perdimiento v. PERDER

PERDIZ

perdon v. Perdonar

PERDONAR

perdulario v. PERDER
PERDVRABLE (DVRAR)
perecedero v. PERECER

PERECER

pereçoso v. PEREZA peregil v. APIO

peregrinacion v. PEREGRINO peregrinar v. PEREGRINO

PEREGRINO

PERENAL (ATREGVADO) perendengues v. TRAJE

PEREZA PERFETO

PERFIL (FABRICA)
PERFILAR (HILANDERA)

PERFVME

PERGAMINO (ATABAL)

PERICO

perigallo v. GALLO

PERIODO

PERIPATETICOS

perjudicar v. PERJVIZIO perjudicial v. PERJVIZIO

PERJVIZIO

perjurar v. IVRAR PERLA (ALJOFAR) PERLADO (PRELADO)
perlatico v. PARALITICO
perlesia v. PARALITICO

PERMANECER

permanente v. PERMANECER

PERMITIR

pernada v. PIERNA pernear v. PIERNA

PERNICIOSO

PERNIL (PIERNA)

PERNIOS

perniquebrar v. Pierna

PERO PEROL

perola v. Berryga

PERPETVO
PERPIÑAN
PERPVNTE
PERQVE
PERGERAS
PERRERO
PERRO
PERROQVIA

perroquiano v. PERROQVIA persecucion v. PERSEGVIR

PERSEGVIR PERSEVERAR

persico v. DVRAZNO

PERSONA
PERSONERO
PERSVADIR
PERTENECER

perteneciente v. PERTENECER pertenencia v. PERTENECER

PERTIGA
PERTIGVERO
PERTINAZ
PERTRECHAR

pertrecho v. PERTRECHAR

PERTVRBAR
PERV
PERVLERO

PERVERSO

pervertido v. Pervertir

PERVERTIR PESADILLA PESADO

PESADVMBRE

PESAR

pesar vaca v. BVEY

PESAS

pescada v. PESQVERA
pescaderia v. PESQVERA

PESCADO

pescador v. Pescado

PESCAR

pescoçada v. Pescvezo pescoçon v. Pescvezo pescuda v. Pescvdar

PESCVDAR
PESCVEZO
PESEBRE

pesebrera v. Pesebre pesebron v. Pesebre pesgar v. Brymar

PESO

PESOLES (FRISOLES)
pespuntar v. PESPVNTE

PESPVNTE PESQVERA

pesquisa v. Pesqvisar pesquisador v. Pesqvisar

PESQVISAR PESTAÑAS

pestañear v. Pestañas

PESTE (RVDA)
pestilencia v. PESTE
pestilencial v. PESTE

PESTILLO PESTOREJO

pestorejon v. Pestorejo petauro v. Boltear peticion v. Pedir

PETIS

PETO

petoral v. PETO

PETRAL
PEVETE
PEZ 1, 2

pez espada v. Espadero

PEZON

pharo v. FARO
physico v. FISICO
PIA (FACANEA)
piache v. PIAR
PIADOSO (PIEDAD)
piante v. PIAR

PIAR PIARA PICA

picaço v. PICA picadillo v. PICAR picador v. PICAR picante v. PICAR

PICAÑO
PICAPORTE
PICAR

picaratos v. IVSBARBA 2

PICARDIA PICARO PICARSE

picas (passar por —) v. crvgia

picaseca v. PICA

picaza v. HVRRACA PICINA s. PICHON pico v. PICAR

pico de gorrion v. ESPVELA 1

PICO DE GRVLLA
picola v. EMPIOLAR
picon v. PICATOSTE
PICOTA (EMPICAR)

PICOTE PICOTERA

picudo v. PICARSE

PIMPOLLO

PINA

pinabete v. PINO PICHEL pinar v. PINO PICHON PIE 1 (BESAR) PINCEL PIE 2 s. PIE DE GALLO pincelada v. PINCEL pie de amigo v. ARROPEAS PINILLO PIE DE GALLO S. PIES pinjante v. PINJAR PIECA PINJAR PINO (PINA) PIEDAD PIEDRA 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 (GRANIZO) PINTA PIEDRABEZAR (BEZAR) PINTAR piedracufre v. ACVFRE pintor v. PINTAR PIEDRA DEL AGVILA pintura v. PINTAR piedra de fuego v. MARQVESITA PINZAS PIEDRAIMAN PINZEL piedralumbre v. ALVMBRE PIÑA PIÑON PIEDRAPOMEZ PIEDRAZVFRE (cf. piedracufre) PIÑONATE piojeria v. PIOJO PIEL PIELAGO pienso v. ALMVERCO 1 piojoso v. PIOJO PIERNA piojuelo v. ARADOR PIES 1, 2, s. PIE PIPA PIEZA PIQVE PIEZGO S. PITIPIE piquero v. PICA PIFARO (FLAVTA) piquete v. PIQVE PIRAMIDE (OBELISCO) PIGMEO PIGVELAS (EMPIOLAR) PIRATA PIJA PIRENE PILA PIRENEOS PILAR 1, 2, 3 (COLVMNA) PIROMANCIA pilastra v. PILAR 2 pisada v. PISAR PILDORAS PISAR (PISAVERDE) pileo v. BONETE pilon v. APILAR; PILA PISAVERDE (CARCAÑAL) PILOTO PISCINA PILTRAFAS PISO PIMENTERO PISTACHO PISTO PIMIENTA pistoletazo v. PISTOLETE PIMIENTO PIMPINELA PISTOLETE (ARCABVZ; FLAVTA)

> PISVERGA PITA

PLEGAR

PLEGARIA

PLEITA PITANÇA pitanceria v. PITANÇA pleiteante v. PLEITO 1 pitancero v. PITANÇA pleitear v. PLEITO 1 PITAÑOSO (LAGAÑOSO) PLEITESIA PLEITO 1, 2 pitar v. PITANCA PLIEGO S. PLIEGVES PITIMA PITIPIE S. PIE DE GALLO PLIEGVES 8. PLEGAR ріто 1, 2 PLINTO pitonico v. APITONARSE plomada v. Plomo PIZCA PLOMO pizpita v. AGVÇANIEVE PLVMA 1, 2 PLACA S. PLAÇO plumon v. PLVMA; COLCHON PLAÇA (PLAÇO) PLVTARCO placentero v. Plazer PLVTON pluvia v. LLVVIA PLAÇO pluvial v. BERNIA PLACVELA PLAGA (LLAGA) POBLACHO S. PVEBLO plaga austral v. AVSTRO POBLAR PLANA 1, 2 POBLETE PLANCHA POBRE PLANETAS POBREZA poçal v. cvbo PLANO (LLANO; LENGVADO) PLANTA (FABRICA) POCILGA plantar v. Planta POCIMA (APOCIMA) plantel v. PLANTA POCO PLANTO (LLANTO) POÇO podadera v. PODAR PLASENCIA PODAR PLATA PODENCO PLATA FORMA PLATANO PODER plateria v. PLATA PODRE platerilla v. Fregadero POETA (CISNE) platero v. PLATA POLAINAS (CALÇAS) polayna v. CALÇAS PLATICA platicar v. PLATICO POLEA PLATICO POLEADA PLATO POLEO plato (hacer—) v. BANQVETE POLICIA PLAYA S. PLAGA POLILLA PLAZER S. PLACA POLIPODIO PLEBEYO

politica v. POLICIA

politico v. POLICIA

polo v. Norte

POLOS POLTRON

poltroneria v. Poltron

POLVCION POLVILLOS POLVO

POLVORA

polvorear v. polvo polvoriento v. polvo

POLVORIN

polvorizar v. polvo polvoroso v. polvo

POLVOS

polla v. Pollo

pollar ( = polar) v. Polos

pollera v. Pollo

POLLINO
POLLO
POMA
POMEZ

pomo v. Poma

POMPA POMPEARSE

pomposo v. Pompearse

PONCELLA PONCIL PONÇOÑA

ponderacion v. PONDERAR

PONDERAR

ponedor v. PONER

PONER

poner los pies v. BESAR

PONIENTE

PONTAZGO S. PONTIDO

PONTE DE LIMA PONTEVEDRA

PONTIDO S. PUENTE 1

PONTIFICE

ponton v. PVENTE 1

POPAR POPAR POPVLAR POPVLOSO

POQVEDAD (POCO)

POR

porcal v. Chavacano

PORCELANA
PORCYNA
PORENDE
PORFIA
PORFIDO
PORFIRIO
PORFIRION

porhidia v. Porfia

POROS POROSO

porqueçuela v. PVERCA
PORQVERIA s. PORQVERIZO
PORQVERIZO s. PVERCA
PORQVERON (ESBIRRO;

GALFARROS)

porquiron v. Esbirro porra (baston 3)

PORRATE

Porretas s. Pverro porrino v. Pverro porro v. Porra

PORTADA (PVERTA 1)
portador v. PORTAZCO
portal v. PVERTA 1

PORTALEÑA portante v. HACA

PORTAZCO

portazgo v. PVERTOS portazguero v. PORTAZCO;

PVERTOS

PORTE

portear v. portazco porteria v. pverta 1

portero v. PVERTA 1; EMPLAZA-

DOR

PORTILLO S. PVERTA 1

PORTO

posada v. posar Preboste
Posar Precider
Posas Preciar
poseedor v. poseer Precio
Poseer Precioso
poso v. posas Precipicio

pospartos v. partos Precipitado (despeñarse)

POSPELO PRECIPITARSE

POSPONER predecessor v. Preceder

possession v. poseer Predicador
Possible Predicar
Posta 1, 2 Predicato
Postas Prefacio
Postema (Apostema) Prefacion
Postes Prefecto

POSTES

POSTES

PREFECTO

PREFERIDO

POSTILLA

PREFERIR

POSTILO

PREFERIR

PREFERIRSE

POSTRE PREGON
POSTRERO PREGONAR
postrimeria v. POSTRERO PREGONERO
POSTVRA 1, 2 PREGVNTA

POSTVRAS PREGVNTADOR
POTAGE PREGVNTAR

POTENCIA PRELACIA (PRELADO)

POTENTADO PRELADO

potente v. Potentado preludio v. Levada

POTRA PREMATICA

potranca v. Potro premia v. Premia vo

POTRERO PREMIADO
POTRO 1, 2 PREMIAR
POTROSO PREMIO
poyal v. POYO PRENDA
poyata v. POYO PRENDAR
POYO PRENDEDERO

praderia v. Prado Prender 1, 2
Prado Prendido

PRATICA prendimiento v. PRENDIDO praticante v. PRATICA PRENSA (EMPRENTA)

PRATICAR prensar v. PRENSA

prebenda v. BECA PREÑADA
PREBENDADO PREPARAR

PREPVCIO PRERROGATIVA

PRESADA

PRESADA

PRESAGIO (SAGAZ)

presbiterato v. Presbitero

PRESBITERO

prescrivir v. Escrivania 2

PRESEAS
PRESENCIA

presentar v. Presente

PRESENTE

presidencia v. Presidente

PRESIDENTE PRESIDIO PRESIDIR

PRESO (PRENDER 2)

PRESTAMERA
PRESTAMO

PRESTAR (EMPRESTAR)

PRESTE

PRESTE IVAN

PRESTO PRESVMIR

presumptuoso v. Presuncion

PRESVNCION PRESVPONER

presupuesto v. Presvponer

PRESVROSO PRETAL

PRETENDER PRETOR

PREVALECER PREVARICAR

PREVENDA

PREVENIR

PREVILEGIO

PREZ
PRIESSA
PRIETO

PRIMA 1, 2, 3

PRIMADO

PRIMAL

PRIMAVERA

primaveris v. Espliego

PRIMERA
PRIMERIZA
PRIMERO

PRIMICERIO (CAPISCOL)

PRIMICIAS PRIMO

PRIMO

primor v. PRIMO

PRINCIPADO PRINCIPAL

PRINCIPE PRINCIPIO

PRINGADAS PRINGAR

PRIOR
PRIORATO

PRINGVE

PRISA (APRIESSA)

PRISCA

PRISION (PRENDER 2) prisionero v. PRENDER 2;

CAVTIVO

privada v. Conseio de Camara

PRIVADO (PRIVAR 2) privança v. PRIVAR 2

PRIVAR 1, 2

PRO PROA

PROBATICA PROBLEMA

proboscide v. ELEFANTE

PROCEDER PROCESSION

processionario v. Procession

PROCESSO (PROCEDER)

PROCVRADOR PROCVRAR

prodigalidad v. prodigo

PROPVCPRODIGIO PROPOSITO proprietario v. Propios PRODIGO PRODVZIR PROSA proscrivir v. Escrivania 2 PROEJAR profanar v. Profano PROSELITO PROFANO PROSODIA PROFERIRSE PROSOPOPEYA Professar 1, 2 prosperar v. Prospero prosperidad v. Prospero profession v. Professar 1 professo v. Professar 1 PROSPERO professor v. Professar 2 PROSTRARSE PROFETA PROTOCOLO profundidad v. Profundo PROTOMEDICO PROFVNDO PROTONOTARIO prohejar v. Proheza PROTOTYPO PROHEMIO prova v. Prveva provabilidad v. Provar PROHEZA provable v. Provar PROHIBIR prohidia v. PROHIDIAR provança v. Provar PROHIDIAR PROVAR PROHIJAR PROVECHO provechoso v. Provecho PROLIXO proveedor v. PROVEER PROLOGO PROVEER PROLONGAR proveido v. Provision; Proveer promessa v. Prometer PROVERBIO PROMETER PROMETIDO PROVINCIA PROVISION 1, 2 (PROVEER) promission v. Prometer PROMVLGAR PROVISOR PRONOMBRE PRVDENCIA prudente v. PRVDENCIA PRONOSTICAR PRONOSTICO PRVEVA PRONTVARIO pu v. Heder

PRONVNCIACION PRONVNCIAR propiedad v. Propios PROPINA

PROPIO (PROPIOS) PROPIOS PROPONER PROPORCION

proposicion v. Proponer

publicidad v. PVBLICAR publico v. PVBLICAR

PVCELANA PVCERĐAN

PVBLICAR

pucheritos v. PVCHERO;

EMBOTIJAR PVCHERO PVCHES

PVEBLO PVENTE 1, 2, 3, 4

PVERCA (APORCAR)
PVERCO 1, 2 (GIRA)

puerco montes v. Montes;

IAVALI PVERICIA

PVERRO (CANA; PORRETAS)

PVERTA 1, 8. PORRETAS

PVERTA 2, 3

puerta falsa v. postigo PVERTO 1, 2, 3 (PVERTOS)

PVERTOS PVESTO

puja v. PVJAR PVJAMIENTO PVJANTE PVJAR

PVJAVANTE

PVJO PVLGA

pulgada v. PVLGAR

PVLGAR

pulgarada v. PVLGAR pulgon v. BROÇA; PVLGA

PVLIDERO
PVLIDO
PVLILLA

pulimiento v. PVLIDO

PVLMON
PVLPA
PVLPEJO
PVPLPITO
PVLPO
PVLSO

PVLLA
PVNÇAR
PVNCON

PVNTA (COLLAR)
PVNTACION

puntada v. PVNTA

PVNTAL

PVNTAR PVNTERA

PVNTERIA

puntero v. PVNTO PVNTIAGVDO

puntillas v. PVNTA puntillazo v. PVNTA

PVNTO (AS)
PVNTVAL
puñada v. PVÑO

puñal v. pvño puñalada v. pvño puñete v. pvño

PVÑO PVÑOS

pupilage v. PVPILO

PVPILO

purga v. PVRGAR purgacion v. PVRGAR

PVRGAR

purgativo v. PVRGAR

PVRGATORIO
puridad v. PVRO
purificacion v. PVRO
purificador v. PVRO
purificar v. PVRO

PVRO

PVRPVRA (CARDENAL) purpureo v. PVRPVRA pusilanimidad v. ANIMAL pusilanimo v. ANIMAL

PVTA PVTERIA PVTO

pyrolo v. HARDA

pythonico v. APITONARSE

Q

Q

QVADERNAS QVADERNO QVADRA quadrado v. QVADRA QVATRO TEMPORAS QVADRANTE quaxarse v. QVAJADA quadrar v. QVADRA OVE QVADRIGA quebrada v. HERIDA quebradizo v. QVEBRAR QVADRILLA QVADRILLEROS quebrantaguesso v. gvesso QVADRO (QVADRA) QVEBRANTAHVESSO quebrantamiento v. QVE-QVADRVPEDES QVAJADA BRANTAR QVAJAR · QVEBRANTAR quajarejo v. QVAJAR quebranto v. QVEBRANTAR QVAJARON QVEBRAR queda v. QVEDAR QVAJO QVAL QVEDADA QVANDO OVEDAR QVANTA S. QVADRVPEDES QVEDO QVANTIA QVEMAR quemazon v. QVEMAR QVANTIDAD quantioso v. QVANTIA; CANTIDAD quemo v. como QVANTO 1, S. QVANTA QVENTA QVANTO 2 QVENTO QVARENTA QVERELLA querellar v. QVERELLA QVARENTENA OVARTA querelloso v. QVERELLA quartaguillo v. HACA QVERENCIA QVARTAGO (BORDE; FACA; HACA) OVERER querido v. QVERER QVARTAL quesadillas v. QVESO QVARTANA quartanario v. QVARTANA quesera v. QVESO QVARTEAR QVESO QVARTILLO QVESTION QVARTO 1 (QVATRO) QVESTOR QVARTO 2, s. QVATRIDIANO QVEXA QVARTON quexarse v. QVEXA qvaternion v. QVADERNO QVEXIGO quatrangular v. QVATRANGVLO quexoso v. QVEXA QVATRANGVLO 8. QVADRILLEROS QVIÇA QVATRIDIANO quicial v. qvicio QVICIO (EXE 1) QVATRIN QVIEBRA (QVEBRAR) QVATRO QVIEBRO

QVIEN

quatropea v. QVADRVPEDES

QVATROTANTO

QVIENQVIERA quietarse v. QVIETO quiete v. QVIETO

QVIETO

quietud v. QVIETO

QVILATAR

quilate v. QVILATAR

QVILMA QVILO

QVILLA (ENCALLARSE)

QVILLOTRO
QVINAO
QVINAS
QVINIENTOS
QVINTA

QVINTAL 1, 2
QVINTAR

quinteria v. QVINTA

quintero v. QVINTA; ALDEA QVINTILLAS

QVINTO S. QVINTAL

QVINZE QVIÑON QVIQVIRIQVI

quiriqui v. ESCONDER quitacion v. QVITAR quitança v. QVITAR

QVITAR QVITASOL

quite v. QVITAR

QVIXADA

quixar v. QVIXADA

QVIXONES

QVIXOTES (COXIN; GIGOTE)

R

 $\mathbf{R}$ 

RABADAN

rabanal v. RABANILLO

RABANILLO RABANO

rabear v. RABON

RABEL

RABI

RABIA 8. RAVDAL rabiar v. RABIA rabicorto v. RABIA rabino v. RABI

RABO

rabo de puerco v. ERVATV

RABON

rabona v. derrabar raboso v. rabon

RAÇA RACIMO RACION

racionero v. RACION raeduras v. RAER

RAER RAFA RAFAEL RAFEZ

RAIZ (RAYZES)

RAJA

rajeta v. RAJA rajol v. AZVLEJOS

RALEA RALO

rallar v. RALLO

RALLO
RAMA
RAMADAN
ramal v. RAMA

RAMBLA (COSCOGITA)

RAMERA

ramero v. RAMA ramillete v. RAMA

RAMIRO

ramo v. RAMA
ramon v. RAMA
ramonear v. RAMA

RANA

RANACVAJO (RENAQVAJO)

RANCIO

ratonera v. RATON

RAVDAL

rancioso v. Rancio raygon v. RAYZES RANCOR RAYO S. RAYA 2 (FVLMINAR) RANCHO RAYZES S. RAIZ RANDA RAZA RANILLAS RAZON S. RACION rapacejo v. ÇANEFA razonable v. RAZONAR rapaceria v. RAPAZ RAZONAR S. RAZON RAPAGON RE -RAPAR REAL 1, 2 (DINERO) RAPAZ REALEJO RAPIDO REALENGO RAPIÑA REATA RAPOSA REAZIO S. REHENES raposeria v. Raposa REBAÑO (ARREBAÑAR) REBATIR (BATIR 1) raposo v. Raposa rebelarse v. REBELDE rapto v. ARREBATAR REBELDE RAQVETA rebeldia v. REBELDE RAS 1, 2 ras con ras v. Arrasar REBELLIN RASAR REBENOVE rascadura v. RASCAR REBENTAR rebidar v. REBITE RASCAR rascuño v. RASGVÑO REBITE rasera v. RASAR; ARRASAR REBOCIÑO RASGAR REBOÇO rebolcadero v. BOLCAR RASGO RASGON REBOLCARSE (BOLCAR) RASGVÑO reboltoso v. BOLVER RASO 1, 2 (ARRASAR) rebolucion v. BOLVER; REBOLVER 2 RASPA rebolvedor v. Rebolver 2; RASPAR RASTILLO BOLVER rastra v. Arrastrar REBOLVER 1, 2, 3 (BOLVER) RASTRO 1, 2 (ARRASTRAR) REBOSAR (BOSAR) RASTROJO REBOTE RATA (RATON) rebuelta v. REBOLVER 2; RATERO BOLVER rebuelto v. REBOLVER 2; RATO RATON BOLVER

RAYA 1, 2 s. RAFEZ (FVLMINAR) REBVSCAR 1 s. BVSCAR

rebullir v. BVLLIR

rebusca v. Redoxos

RECOMPENSA (COMPENSAR)

REBUSCAR 2 reconciliacion v. RECONCILIAR: rebusco v. REBVSCAR RECONCILIADO rebuxo v. REBVSCAR RECONCILIADO 8. RECONCILIAR 1 rebuznar v. REBVSCAR RECONCILIAR 1. 8. CONCILIAR rebuzno v. Rebyscar RECONCILIAR 2 RECAER (CAIDA) RECONCILIARSE recagar v. CAGA RECONGAR S. RECELARSE recago v. CAGA reçongon v. REÇONGAR; recaida v. RECAER; CAIDA REZONGAR RECALCAR RECONOCER RECAMAR recopilacion v. RECOPILAR RECAMARA 1, 2 (CAMARA) RECOPILAR recapitulacion v. RECAPITULAR RECOGVIN RECAPITYLAR RECORDAR RECATARSE (CATAR) RECOSTARSE (ACOSTAR) recato v. RECATARSE; CATAR RECREARSE RECATON RECRECERSE RECAVDAR RECVA recaudo v. RECAVDAR recudimiento v. RECVDIR rececho v. ACECHANCAS RECVDIR recuerdo v. RECORDAR RECEL S. RECIBIR RECELARSE S. RECEL recuero v, recva recelo v. RECELARSE RECVESTO receloso v. Celoso reçumarse v. ÇVMO recental v. CORDERO; RECIENTE; recurso v. CVRSO recusacion v. RECVSAR REZENTAR recentar v. RECIENTE; REZENTAR RECVSAR recibimiento v. RECIBIR RECHAZAR (CHAÇA) RECIBIR S. RECVSAR RECHINAR RECIENTE (REZENTAR) rechumbre v. CVMBRE RECIO RED RECLAMAR (CLAMOR) REDAÑO RECLAMO REDARGVIR RECLYSION REDEMIR recluso v. RECLYSION redempcion v. REDEMIR redemptor v. REDEMIR RECOBRAR redentor v. REDEMIR RECOGER (COGER) RECOGERSE REDITO RECOGIMIENTO (COGER) REDOBLAR (DOBLEGARSE) redoble v. REDOBLAR: DOBLE-RECOLETO

GARSE

REDOMA

redomado v. REDOMA

REDOMAZO

redondar v. REDONDO

redondez v. REDONDO

REDONDILLAS

REDONDO

redopelo v. REDROPELO

REDOR REDOXOS REDRO

redrojo v. Breton

REDROPELO

redroxo v. redoxos redroxuelo v. redoxos

REDVNDAR REDVZIR

reedificar v. EDIFICIO refeccion v. REFITORIO

REFERIR

REFINAR (FINO)
refino v. REFINAR
refirmar v. FIRMA
refitolero v. REFITORIO

REFITORIO REFLORECER

reformation v. FORMAR reformador v. FORMAR REFORMAR (FORMAR)

REFORMARSE

REFRAN

REFREGAR (FREGAR) refregon v. FREGADERO

REFRENAR

refrenarse v. FRENO

REFRESCAR

refrescarse v. FRESCO refresco v. REFRESCAR refriega v. FREGADERO

REFRIGERAR

refrigerio v. REFRIGERAR

REFVGIO

REFVNFVÑAR

REGAÇO REGADIO REGAIFA

regalador v. Regalo Regalarse (Regalo)

regalillo v. REGALO; MANGA 3

REGALIZA

regalizia v. orozvz

REGALO

regalon v. REGALO

REGAÑAR REGAR REGATA

regatear v. REGATON 2

REGATON 1, 2

regazo v. ARREGAZAR regencia v. REGIR regente v. REGIR regidor v. REGIR regio v. BASILICON

REGION REGIR REGISTRAR

REGISTROS (REGISTRAR)

REGLA

reglar v, regla Regocijarse

regodearse v. REGODEO

REGODEO

regoldano v. REGVELDO

REGOLDAR

regolfar v. REGOLFO

REGOLFO

regozijarse v. Gozo

regozijo v. REGOCIJARSE; GOZO

REGVELDO
REGVLAR 1, 2
REHAZER

rehecho v, REHAZER

REHENCHIR (HENCHIMIENTO)

REHENES

REHVNDIR REHVSAR REIERTA

REJA 1, 2 REJA 3, 8. REVOLVCION REJALGAR (ARSENICO)

REJO 1, 2
REJVELA
RELACION

relamado v. Lamedor 2 relamerse v. Lamedor 2

RELAMIDO RELAMPAGO RELAMPAGVEAR

RELATOR

RELEVAR RELICARIO RELIEVE

RELIGION RELIGIOSO

refinchar v. RELINCHO

RELINCHO RELIQVIAS RELOX

RELVMBRAR RELVZIR

rellanarse v. LLANO RELLENAR (LLENO) RELLENO (LLENO)

REMACHAR REMANECER REMANENTE

REMANSO
REMAR (REMO 2)

REMATAR REMATE REMEDAR

REMEDIAR

remedio v. REMEDIAR

remembrança v. MEMBRARSE;

REMEMBRAR

REMEMBRAR REMENDAR

remendon v. REMENDAR REMERO s. REMO 2 (REMO 1)

REMESAR REMESAR

REMESON 1, 2 (ARREMETER)

REMETER

remiendo v. REMENDAR remisible v. REMITIR REMISION (REMITIR) remiso v. REMISON

REMITIR
REMITIRSE

REMO 1 S. REMANSO

REMO 2
REMOÇARSE
REMOJAR

REMOLCAR 1, S. REMAR

REMOLINO 1, 2

REMONTAR (MONTON)

REMORA REMORDER

remordimiento v. REMORDER

REMOSTAR REMOVER

REMPVJAR (EMPVJAR) REMPVJON (EMPVJAR) REMVDAR (MVDABLE)

REMVLCAR REMVNERAR

RENAQVAJO (RANACVAJO)

RENASCER RENCILLA RENCILLO

rencilloso v. RENCILLA RENCO (DERRENGAR)

RENCOR RENDIRSE RENDON

renegado v. RENEGAR

repositorio v. reportorio RENEGAR RENES REPOSO RENGLON (REGLA) reposteria v. repostero RENIEGO REPOSTERO RENOMBRE REPREHENDER renovar v. RENOMBRE represa v. Represar RENQVEAR S. RENCO (CIAR) REPRESAR representacion v. Representar rentero v. RENTA representantes v. Representar rentilla v. RENTA REPRESENTAR renuevo v, renombre REPRIMIR renunciación v. RENVNCIAR reprochar v. REPROCHE RENVNCIAR -REPROCHE RENZILLA REPROVAR (APROBAR) renzilloso v. RENZILLA reptar v. REPTO REÑIR S. RENGLON REPTO REO REPUBLICA republico v. REPVBLICA REPAPILARSE reparacion v. REPARAR REPVDIO repuesto v. REPOSTERO REPARAR repugnancia v. REPVGNAR reparo v. REPARAR repartidor v. REPARTIR repugnante v. REPVGNAR repartimiento v. REPARTIR REPVGNAR REPARTIR REPVLGAR REPELAR repulgo v. REPVLGAR REPELO reputacion v. REPVTAR repelon v. REPELAR; VIEJO 1 REPVTAR REQVA

REPENTINO
repetente v. ENDECHAS
repeticion v. REPETIR
REPETIDOR
REPETIR

repicapunto v. REPICAR

REPICAR 1, 2

repique v. REPICAR 1 repizco v. REPICAR 2

REPLICAR
REPOLLO
REPONER
REPORTARSE
REPORTORIO
reposar v. REPOSO

REQUESTA
requestar v. REQUESTA

REQUERO S. REQVA

requesto v. REQVESTA requiebro v. REQVEBRAR;

requerimiento v. REQVERIR

QVIEBRO
REQVIERO
REQVISITORIA
RES 1, 2 (COSA)
RESABER

REQUEBRAR

REQUERIR

REQUESON

RESPONDER

RESPONSO

RESABIO responsorio v. RESPONSO resbaladero v. RESBALAR respuesta v. Responder RESBALAR RESOVEBRADVRA RESOVEBRAJO S. REOVEBRAR RESCATAR rescate v. RESCATAR (RESQVEBRADVRA) rescoldar v. Rescoldo RESQVICIO (QVICIO) · RESCOLDO resquite v. QVITAR RESCRIBIR RESTANTE rescrivir v. Escrivania 2 RESTAÑAR RESEÑA RESTAR reserva v. Reservar RESTAVRAR reservacion v. RESERVAR restitucion v, restituir RESERVAR RESTITVIR RESFRIAR RESTO RESGVARDO (GVARDIAN) RESUCITAR RESIDENCIA resuello v. RESOLLAR residente v. RESIDIR RESVLTA resultar v. Resulta RESIDIR RESURECCION RESIGNAR RESINA RESVALAR RESISTENCIA RETABLO RESISTERO RETAÇO RETAGVARDA (AVANGVARDIA) RESISTIR .... resolucion v. Resolver retajado v. RETAJAR; CIRCVNresoluto v. RESOLVER CIDAR RESOLVER RETAJAR retal v. RETAÇO RESOLLAR retama v. ESPARTO; GINESTA; RESONAR respetable v. RESPETO RETAJAR respetar v. RESPETO RETARDAR RESPETIVAMENTE retazar v. DESTAZAR RESPETO RETEJAR RESPIRACION (ESPITITVAL) RETENER respiradero v. ESPIRITVAL; RETEÑIR RESPIRACION RETESADO · RESPIRAR (ESPIRITVAL) RETINTE RESPLANDECER retirada v. RETIRAR resplandeciente v. RESPLAN-RETIRAR DECER RETO resplandor v. RESPLANDECER RETOÇAR

retoçon v. RETOÇAR

RETOÑAR

RIO

	1110
retoño $v$ . RETOÑAR	rey Don Alonso v. ESCVELA
RETOR	REYES DE ARMAS S. REY
RETORCER	REZAR 1, 2
retorcimiento v. RETORCER	REZENTAR
retorcion v. RETORCER	REZIO
retoria v. retor	REZMA
RETORICA	REZNO
retornar v. retorno	rezo v. rezar 2
RETORNO	REZONGAR (REÇONGAR)
retortero v. RETORCER; TORTERA	rhinoceronte v. BADA
RETRAER	RIA 1
retraimiento $v$ . RETRAER	RIA 2, s. RIO
retratador v. RETRATO	riachuelo v. RIA 2
RETRATO	RIBA
RETRETE	RIBADOQVIN
retular $v$ . RETVLO	RIBAZO (ARRIBA)
RETVLO (ARROLLAR)	RIBERA .
returto v. RETORCER	RIBETE
REVMA (ROMADIZO)	RICLA
reumatico v. ROMADIZO	RICO
revanada v. revañar	RIÇO
REVAÑAR	RIEL
REVAÑO	RIENDA 1 s. RENDIRSE
revelacion $v$ . REVELAR	RIENDA 2
REVELAR	RIEPTO
REVENDER 1	RIESGO
REVENDER 2, s. VENTA 1	RIFA
REVENIRSE	RIFAS
REVENQVE (REBENQVE)	rigido v. RIGOR
REVENTAR (REBENTAR)	RIGOR
reventon $v$ . Reventar	rija v. RIXA
REVERDECER	RIMA
REVERENCIA	RINCON (ANGVLO)
reverendo $v$ . REVERENCIA	RINGLON
REVERSO	RINOCERONTE (BADA)
REVESAR (TROCAR)	RIÑA
REVESTIR	riñonada v. RIÑONES 1
REVIVIR 8. REBITE	RIÑONES 1, S. RENES
REVOCAR	RIÑONES 2
	RIO
REVOLVCION	rio tinto v. AZECHE

RIOJA RIOSTRAS

rexuela v. Brasa

REY S. REHVSAR

ripia v. RIPIO rogativa v. ROGAR RIPIO ROJO ROLLO 1, 2 (ARROLLAR; HORCA) RIPONZE RIQVEZA (RICO) romadiçado v. ROMADIZO; RISA RISCO CATARRO romadizado v. Catarro rismoso v, chisme ROMADIZO (CATARRO) RISTRA RISTRE ROMANA ROMANCE (LATIN; LAVD) RITO RIVAL ROMAZA romeria v. ROMERO 1; VENERA RIXA rixoso v. RIXA ROMERO 1, S. ROMA RIZA ROMERO 2 rizar v. ERIZARSE ROMO RIZO (ERIZARSE) ROMPER ro v. ARRULLARSE rompimiento v. Romper ROBA RONCAR robador v. ROBAR RONCEAR ROBAR RONCERIAS roble v. ROBRE RONCESVALLES ROBRA ronco v. RONCAR robrar v. ROBRA RONDA 1, 2 ROBRE rondon v. RENDON ROCA ronquera v. RONCAR ROCADERO (RVECA) ronquido v. RONCAR ROCIN (CAVALLO) ronzero v. RONCEAR RODABALLO ROÑA rodajuela v. ESTORNIJA roñoso v. Roña RODAR rodear v. Rodeo ropavejero v. ROPA; VIEJA roperia v. ROPA RODELA rodelero v. RODELA ropero v. ROPA RODEO ROQVE S. ROCADERO roquero v. ROCA RODETE RODILLA 1, 2 (HINOJOS) ROQVETE RODILLO ROSA

rodrigar v. RODRIGON RODRIGO RODRIGON ROER ROGAR

rosado v. Rosa rosal v. Rosa ROSARIO ROSAS ROSCA

RVISELLON

RVISEÑOR

rumba v. DERROTA ROSILLON ROSO RVMBO rosquilla v. Rosca RVMIAR rostrituerto v. Rostro; TVERTOS RVMOR ROSTRO RVQVETA ROTO (ROMPER) rusco v. Brysco ROTVLO (CVERNO; RETVLO; ruso v. Ivsbarba 1 ARROLLAR) RVSTICO ROXO RVTILANTE rozal v. Altozano RVVIO ROZAR 1, S. ROQVE S ROZAR 2 ROZIN SABADO sabalo v. saboga ROZIO S. ROCIN rozongero v. RONCAR SABER RVASABINA RVANO · · SABIO RVAR SABOGA sabor v. SABIO RVBI SABOYANA RVBIA sabroso v. Sabio RVBIO RVBRICA SABVESO ruca v. ORVGA SACA sacabocados v. BOCADO RVDA RVDO (BASTON 3) SACABVCHE RVECA sacaliña v. SACA; GARROCHA RVEDA (GORRA) SACAR RVEDO (FILATERIA) SACERDOTE SACO (CASACA; CILICIO; IACO) RVEGO (ROGAR) RVFIAN SACRE RVFIANESCA SACRIFICAR sacrificio v. SACRIFICAR RVGA RVGIR SACRILEGIO RVI SACRISTAN sacristia v. SACRISTAN RVIBARBO sacudimiento v. SACVDIR RVIDO SACVDIR RVIN saculario v. IVEGO 2 RVINA RVIPONCE SAELIZES ruipontico v. Centavra

SAETA

SAFIRO

saetera v, saeta

SALPA

SALPICAR

SAGAZ SALPICON salpimentar v. PIMIENTA sage v. SAYN sagitario v. SAETA SALPRESA SAGRA salpresado v. Salpresa sagrario v. SACRISTAN salpuga v. HORMIGA SAGVNTO (MONVIEDRO) SALSA SAHAGVN salsera v. SALSA sahumador v. SAHVMERIO salserilla v. SALSA sahumar v. SAHVMERIO SALSES SAHVMERIO SALSIFRASIA saltaenbanchi v. CHARLATAN sajada v. sajar SAJAR saltaenvanca v. vanca SAL (GVSTO) saltambanchi v. BANCA 2 SALA SALTAR SALABREÑA salteador v. SALTEAR; FORAGIDO SALAMANCA SALTEAR SALAMANDRA SALTERIO (SALMO) salamanquesa v. SALAMANDRA salto v. SALTAR SALARIO salto de la trucha v. BOLTEAR SALCHICHA (CHICHA) SALVD salchichon v. SALCHICHA: saludable v. SALVDAR CHICHA saludador v. SALVDAR saledizo v. SALIDA SALVDAR SALERO saludarse v, salvtacion SALGADA SALVTACION SALIDA salutifero v. SALVDAR SALINAS SALVA 1, 2 s. SALVOCONDVTO SALIR (SALIDA) salvador v. SALVAR SALITRE SALIVA (SALVDAR) SALVADOS salma v. XALMA SALVAGE salmear v. Salmo salvagina v. SALVAGE salmista v. SALMO SALVAMENTO SALMO SALVANTES SALMON SALVAR salmonete v. SALMON; TRILLA SALVATIERRA SALMOREJO SALVIA SALMVERA (ESCABECHE) salvilla v. salva 2 SALOBRE SALVOCONDVTO S. SALVAMENTO SALOBREÑA SAMARITANO

SAMBENITO (BENITO)

sambuca v. ÇAMPONA

SAMVGAS SANTISTEVAN

SANAR (SANO) SANTO

SAN BAVDVLIO v. BOAL SANTO DOMINGO S. DOMINGVILLO

Santo Tis v. SANTIS SAN BENITO (SACO)

sancochada v. CHICHA SANTVARIO SAÑA SANCHO

SANCHOS sapino v. CHAPIN SAPO (ESCVERZO) SANDALIO

SANDALOS SAQVEAR sandaraca v. ARSENICO SARAMPION SANDIOS SARCIA San Elizes v. SAELIZES SARDINA San Gil v. EGIDIO SARDO sangraça v. SANGRE SARDONICA sangradera v. SANGRE SARGENTO sangrar v. sangre SARGO

SANGRE (SANGVINARIA) SARMENTAR

SANGRE DE DRAGO S. DRAGONTEA sarmentera v. SARMENTAR

sangre lluvia v. flvxo SARMIENTO sangria v. SANGRE SARNA (GAFO) sangriento v. SANGRE SARNOSO SANGVINARIA SARPVLLIDO

SARRA (SARRACENOS) SANGVISVELA

San Iorge v. Vallesta SARRACENOS San Lino v. Linares SARRIA SANLVCAR DE BARRAMEDA SARRO San Nofre v. 10fre SARTA SANO SARTEN SAN SEBASTIAN SASTRE SAN SERVANTES S. SAMBENITO

satanas v. Satan SANTA MARIA

SANTANDER SATIRA

SATIRICO (SATIRA) SANTARIN

SATIRION SAN TELMO SANTERO SATIROS SANTIAGO SATISFAZER

satisfecho v. Satisfazer santiamen v. AMEN

SATAN

santiguadero v. Santigvar SATRAPA SANTIGVAR SAVCE SANTILLANA SAVCO

San Tirso v. santis sauz v. savce

sauz gatillo v. AGNOCASTO SANTIS

SAV

SAVALO SAVANAS

SAVANDIJA SAVAÑON

SAXAR SAXIFRAGVA

saya v. sayo; falda

sayago v. saco sayal v. saco sayn s. sayo saynete v. sayn sayo s. sahvmerio sayon v. saco; sayn; birrhos:

 $\begin{array}{c} {\tt CASACA} \\ {\tt sayuelo} \ v. \ {\tt sayo} \end{array}$ 

SAZON

sazonado v. Sazon sçabila v. ACIBAR scabira v. ACIBAR

scariola v. ESCAROLA

scenopegia v. CENA sciatica v. CADERA SEBASTIAN

SEBO SEBOSO

SECA (LANDRE)

SECAR SECAS SECRESTAR SECRESTO

secreta v. LATRINA

secretaria v. SECRETARIO

SECRETARIO SECRETAS

SECRETO (SECRETAS)

SED
SEDA
SEDAC V. CERDA
SEDAL (CERDA)
SEDICION
SEDICIOSO

sediento v. SED seer v. ASEO

segador v. Segar

SEGAR

SEGLAR (SIGLO)

SEGOVIA SEGRE

seguimiento v. SEGVIR

SEGVIR
SEGVN
SEGVNDO
SEGVR
SEGVRA
SEGVRO
SEIS
SELVA
SELLO 1, 2

SEMANA
Semaneria v. SEMANA

semanero v. SEMANA

SEMBLANTE

semble v. ENSAMBLAR semblea v. ENSAMBLAR sembrado v. SEMBRAR

SEMBRAR

semejança v. SEMEJAR semejante v. SEMEJAR

SEMEJAR
SEMIRAMIS
SEMOLA
SEN
SENADO

sencillez v. SENCILLO

SENCILLO SENDA

sendero v. Senda

SENECTVD
SENESCAL
SENO
SENOGIL
SENTAR
SENTENCIAR

sentido v. SENTIR sentimiento v. SENTIR

SENTINA SENTIR SEÑA SEÑAL

señalarse v. SEÑAL

SEÑOR

señorear v. señoria

SEÑORIA

señorio v. SEÑORIA

SEÑVELO SEPVLCRO SEPVLTVRA SEPVLVEDA SEQVEDAD

SER
SERAFIN
SERAFIN
SERAPINO
SERAPIS

SERAPIS
SERENO
SERENISSIMO

SERENO SERGVE SERIA

seriola v. ESCAROLA

SERMON

sermonario v. SERMON sermonear v. SERMON SEROJAS (HOJA 1)

SERON

SERPENTINA 8. SIERPE SERPIENTE (CVLEBRA)

SERPOL SERRANIA SERVAL

servicio v. SERVIR servidor v. SERVIR servidumbre v. SERVIR

servil v. servir

SERVILLAS (CALÇADO)
SERVILLETA (MANTELES)

SERVIR SESENTA SESMA

SESO (CASCOS)

SESTEAR

sesudo v. seso seta 1, 2 (xeta)

SETENAS
SETENTA 1, 2
SETIEMBRE

SETVBAL

SETO

seu v. SILLA; CATEDRAL

SEVERO SEVILLA SEVILLANO SEVO SI

SICANIA

SICILIA 1 8. CICATRIZ

SICILIA 2 SICILIANOS Sicla v. AZELGA

SICLO

sicula v. AZELGA

SIDONIA SIDRA siega v. SEGAR

siembra v. SEMBRAR

SIEMPRE

SIEMPREVIVA (PVNTERA)

SIERPE SIERRA 1, 2

SIERRA DE ALCARAZ SIERRA DE GATA SIERRA DE GRANADA SIERRA DE SEGVRA SIERRA MORENA SIERRA NEVADA SIERVO SIESO

SIESTA (RESISTERO)

SIETE

siete colores v. SIRGVERO

sietemesino v. Mes

SIGES SIGILO

SIGILLATA TERRA

sigillo v. sello 2

SIGLO SIGNIFICAR SIGNO

SILABA

silenciario v. CONSEJEROS

SILENCIO SILICIO v. IACO SILICI (ENSILAR)

SILVA

silvato v. silvo

SILVO SILLA SILLAR

sillon v. SILLA

SIMA SIMACO SIMANCAS

simbolico v. simbolo

SIMBOLIZAR SIMBOLO SIMIA SIMIENTE

simon v. DELFIN

SIMONIA SIMONIACO SIMPATIA SIMPLE

simplicista v. SIMPLE simplon v. SIMPLE

SIMPOSIO

SIN

SINABAFA

SINAGOGA (IGLESIA)

SINCEL SINDICO SINFONIA SINGVLAR

singulariçarse v. SINGVLAR singularidad v. SINGVLAR

SINIESTRA
SINIESTRO
SINO v. NO
SINODO

sinodontil v. Corvina

SINONOMOS SINTAGMA SINTAXIS

SION S. IERVSALEM

SIRENAS SIRGA

sirgero v. GIRGERO

SIRGO
SIRGVERO
SIRIA
SIRINGA
SIRTES
SIRVENTE
SISA V. SISAR

SISAR

sisaro v. CHIRIVIA sitiar v. SITIO

SITIO SITVAR

SIVILLA S. SI

SOBACO SOBAJAR SOBAQVINA

sobarbada v. Barbada sobarcado v. Sobaco sobarcar v. Abarcar sobejano s. Sobajar SOBERANO

soberbio v. sobervia

SOBERVIA

SOBORNAL SOBORNAR

SOBRA

SOBRADO (SOBRA)

SOBRE

sobrecatça v. CALÇAS sobrecejo v. CEJA sobreguesso v. GVESSO

sobreguesso v. GVESSO
sobrehuesso v. SOBRE
sobrehusa v. CAPIROTADA
sobrenombre v. SOBRE
sobrepujar v. SOBRE

sobrescrito v. escrivania 2 sobrescrivir v. escrivania 2

sobreser v. sobre

sobrestante v. ESTANTE

sobreusa v. sobre; capirotada

sobrevenir v. sobre sobrina v. sobrina

SOBRINO
SOBRIO
SOCARRAR
SOCARREN
SOCARRENA
SOCARRON

SOCAVAR

so cesto v. CORDERO

SOCORRER

socorro v. socorrer socrocio (pitima) sochantre v. capiscol

SODA SOFALDAR

SOFISTA (FILOSOFO)

sofrenada v. sofrenda; freno

SOFRENDA

SOGA SOGORBE SOHEZ

SOJUZGAR

SOL

168

SOLANA (AÇVTEA) solano v. SOLANA

SOLAPAR

solapo v. solapar solar (bvrgo)

SOLAZAR SOLDADA

soldadesca v. soldado

SOLDADO
SOLDAN
SOLDAR
SOLECISMO
SOLEDAD
SOLEMNE

solemnizar v. Solemne

SOLER

soleta v. LENGVADO solicitador v. SOLICITAR

SOLICITAR
SOLICITO
SOLIDO
SOLIMAN
SOLITARIO
SOLIVIAR

solivio v. SOLIVIAR

SOLO

solomo v. lomo solsobaco v. sobaco

SOLTAR

soltero v. Soltar soltura v. Soltar

SOLLO SOLLOZAR

soma v. ASSOMAR

SOMBRA SOMBRERERA sombrero v. sombra; gorra

sombrio v. sombra

SOMETER SOMETICO

SOMO (ASSOMAR; ZOMAS)

SOMORGVJO

SONADA SONAJAS SONAR SONARSE

SONDA (BOLINA) sonido v. SON sonoro v. SONARSE

SONREIRSE

SONSACAR (ASACAR)

SOÑAR

soñoliento v. sveño

SOPA

SOPAPO (PAPIROTE) SOPARO V. SOPA

SOPETON SOPETRAN SOPLAR

soplillo v. soplar soplo v. soplar

soplon v. SOPLAR; CHISME

SOPORTAR

SOR

SORBO S. SORTEAR

SORCE SORDO SORIA

SORNA (SORRA) SORRA 8. SOR SORREO v. SORRA

SORTEAR

SORTIJA 1, 2 (ANILLO)

SORVER SOSA 1, 2 SOSEGAR SOSIA

sospecha v. sospechar

SOSPECHAR

sospechoso v. sospechar sospirar (espiritval)

SOTA

sota comitre v. sota

SOTANA

sotanado v. Sotano sotanilla v. Sotana

SOTANO SOTERRANEO SOTERRAR SOTIL SOTO SOVAR SOVINA

spherico v. ESFERA sphinge v. ESFINGE strige v. BRVXA struma v. LAMPARON

SVAVE COSA

subdelegado v. LEGADO

SVBDITO subida v. SVBIR subidor v. SVBIR subjecto v. SVGETO

SVBIR

SVBITA COSA 1

SVBITA COSA 2, S. SVPERSTI-

CIOSO

subitaneo v. svbita cosa 1 subito v. svbita cosa 1 sublimar v. svblime

SVBLIME SVBRETICIO SVCEDER 1, 2

sucesso v. syceder 1 syciedad s. sycio (cyzio)

SVCIO S. SVSTO

SVDAR SVDARIO SVDITO SVPLICAR SVPLIR SVEGRA SVPREMO (TIPLE) SVEGRO SVELA SVRGIR surtidor v. SVRTIR SVELDA SVELDO SVRTIR SVELO SVRZIR SVELTA COSA SVS sueltas v. SVELTA COSA SVSANA . suelto v. SVELTA COSA suso v. svs SVEÑO 1 s. SEÑOR SVSPENDER 1, S. PENDER SVEÑO 2 (SOÑAR) SVSPENDER 2 SVERO 1.2 suspenso v. syspender 2 SVERTE SVSPIRO (SOSPIRAR) SVSTANCIA 1, 2 SVFRAGANEO sustancial v. systancia 2 SVFRAGIO sustancioso v. systancia 2 SVFRE sufrimiento v. SVFRIR SVSTENTAR sustento v. Systentar SVFRIR SVSTITVIR SVGECION SVGETAR SVSTO SVGETO SVYO S. SVGOSO suzio v. CVZIO

suggina v. BRVXA SVGO SVGOSO

SVLCAR sulco v. SVLCAR SVLCONETE

SVLTAN SVMA

SYMILLER (CORTINA)

SVMIR

SVMISION (SOMETER)

SVNTVOSO SVPERFLVO . SVPERSTICION SVPERSTICIOSO SVPLEMENTO SVPLICA

SVPLICACION (OBLEA) SVPLICACIONES

T

TABACO TABAHOLA TABANO

tabardillo v. PINTA

TABERNA

tabernero v. TABERNA

synomya v. SINONOMOS

T

TABIQUE

TABLA 1, 2, 3, 4 tablachin v. Escypo TABLADO (TABERNA)

TABLAJERO TABLILLA 1, 2

TABOR

Taborlan v. TAMORLAN

TABVCO

taca v. ALACENA; ALHACENA

TAÇA 1, 2

tacaña v. TAÇANA

TACAÑO

taçar v. DESTAZAR

TACO TACTO TACHA

tachar v. TACHA

TACHON

tachonada v. TACHON

TACHVELA TAFALLA

TAFETAN tafur v. Tahvr TAGAROTE

TAHALI TAHEÑO

TAHONA TAHVR TAIBIOVE

TAIMADO TAITA

tajada v. Tajar Tajador

tajante v. TAJAR

TAJAR TAJO

tajo v. TAJAR tajon v. TAJADOR

TAJVÑA
TAL
TALA
TALABARTE

TALABERA DE LA REYNA taladrar v. TALADRO

TALADRO TALAMO

TALANQVERA
TALANTE

talar v. TALA

talatro v. Barrena

TALEGA

talegaço v. Talega talegon v. Talega

TALENTO

TALION S. TALMVD

TALMVD
TALON
TALQVE
TALVINAS

TALLA 1, 2 (ENTALLADOR)

TALLE

tallecer v. TALLO

taller v. Talla 1; Entallador

TALLERES
TALLO
TAMAÑO
TAMARA

TAMARAS (DATIL)
TAMARINDOS (DATIL)

TAMARIZ TAMBIEN

tamboril v. TAMBORINO tamborilero v. TAMBORINO

TAMBORILLO TAMBORINO

tamboritero v. Tamborino Tamerlan v. Tamorlan

tamo v. flveco

TAN
TANDA
TANGER
TANTO
TANTOS
TAÑER
TAO

TAPABOCA

TAPAR (ATAPAR)

TAPETADO

TAPETE (TAPAR)

TAPIA

tapiador v. TAPIA tapiales v. TAPIA tapiar v. TAPIA

TAPIZ

TARAÇANA taracea v. EMBLEMA

TARACON

TARAÇONA

TARAGONTIA (DARAGONTIA; DRAGONTEA)

TARAL

tarambola v. CARAMBOLA

TARANTVLA

TARASCA (DVENDE)

TARAVILLA TARBEA

tardança v. TARDAR

TARDAR TARDE

tardio v. TARDE tardon v. TARDE

TAREA

tarentino v, TARENTO

TARENTO TARGETA TARGVM

TARIFA

TARIMA

TARIN TARJA TARQVIN TARRAGONA TARRENAS

TARRO TARTAGO TARTAJOSO

tartamudo v. Tartajoso

TARTANA

tartaraguelo v. BISAGVELO

TARTARANIETO TARTARAÑETO

TARTAROS

Tartesso v. Betis

TARVGO TASAJO TASAR

tasca v. Tascar

TASCAR TASCOS

tassa v. Tasar tassacion v, Tasar tassador v. Tasar TAVANO (ISIS)

TAVAQVE TAVARDILLO TAZ (DESTAZAR)

taz por taz v. TANTOS

TAZA TAZMIA TEA (BODA) teatino v. iesvs

TEATRO TEBA TEBIOVE TECLA TECHO

techumbre v, тесно

теја 1, 2 TEJADO

TEJAR (TEJERO)

TEJAROZ TEJAZO TEJERO TEJO TEJVELAS TELA

TELAMONES TELAR TELARAÑA TELONIO TELLIZ

tematico v. TEMA temblador v. TEMBLAR

TEMA

TEMBLAR TEOFILO
TEMBLOR (TEMBLAR) TEOLOGIA
TEMER TEORICA

TEMERARIO teorico v. TEORICA

temor v. TEMER
temoroso v. TEMER
temoso v. TEMER
TERCERO
TEMPANO
TEMPERO
TERCIANA
TEMPERO
TERCIAS
TEMPESTAD

tempestuoso v. TEMPESTAD TERCIOPELADO

templança v. TEMPLAR TERCIOPELO (TERCIOPELADO)

TEMPLAR TERCO (ALTERCAR)
TEMPLARIOS TERICIA (ITERICIA)

temple v. Templar Terliz
TEMPLO TERMAS
TEMPORAL TERMENTINA

TEMPORALIDADES terminacion v. TERMINOS

TEMPORAS (QVATRO TEMPORAS) TERMINO (TERMINOS 1; CRITICO)

TEMPRANA TERMINOS 1, 2 temprano v. TEMPRANA termuz v. CALDO

TENACAS TERNERO

tenacuelas v. Tenacas ternilla v. Ternyra

TERNURA

tendedero v. TENDER TERRADO (ACVTEA)

TENDEJON TERRAZA

TENDER terremoto v. TERREPLENA

tendero v. TENDER
tendeson v. TIENDA
TERRENO
TENDILLA
TENEBROSO
TERREPLENO
tenencia v. TENIENTE
TENER
TERRITORIO

TENIENTE TERRON
TENOR terruño v. TERRON

TENTACION TERVEL

TENTADOR - tesera v. CARNICOL

TENTAR TESO 1, 2
TENTATIVA teson v. TESO 1
TEÑIR 1 TESORERIA
TEÑIR 2, s. TIÑA TESORERO

TEODOSIO TESORO

TESTA testador v. TESTAMENTO

testamentario v. TESTAMENTO

TESTAMENTO TESTAR TESTICVLOS TESTIGO

TESTIMONIO

TESTO TETA

tetona v. TETA TETRAGONO

TETRAGRAMMATON

TETRARCA

tetrarchia v. TETRARCA TEVIAMAN S. TRVHAN

TEXA TEXAR TEXO TEXON

TEZ

thoro v. Estypro thymiama v. TIMIAMA

TLA TTARA TIBER TIBIA

tibio v. TIBIA TÍBVRON

TIEMPO TIENDA

TIENTA 1 S. TENTATIVA

TIENTA 2

TIENTO 1, S. TIENTA 1

TIENTO 2 TIERNA

tierno v. TIERNA TIERRA 1, 2

tierra de Sevilla v. AZECHE

TIERRA SIGILLATA

TIESTO TIGERAS TIGERETAS S. TISERAS

TIGRE

tildar v. TILDE

TILDE TILLA TIMIAMA

TIMON (GOVERNAR)

TIMONERO

TIMPANO (TEMPANO)

tinagilla v. TINAJA

TINAJA

tinajon v. TINAJA tinajuela v. TINAJA

TINELO

tino v. ATINAR

TINTA TINTE TINTERO TINTORERO

tintura v. TINTORERO

TIÑA

TIO 1, S. TIA

тю 2 TIPLE TIPOGRAFO TIRA

TIRABRAGVERO

TIRADOR

TIRAFLOJA (FLOXO) tiramira v. TIRA tiranizar v. TIRANO

TIRANO TIRANTE

tirar v. TIRA; TIRO 1 TIRICIA (TERICIA)

TIRITAÑA TIRITAR

TIRO 1, 2, 3 s. TIRA (ARCABVZ)

TIROS 1

TIROS 2 (err. por TIRSO)

tirso v. Tiros 2

TISERAS tomo v, Tomar TISICA TONADA (SONADA) TISIFONE TONEL tonelada v. TONEL TITERES titulillos v. TITVLO 3 TONO тітуго 1, 2, 3 TONSVRA tixeretas v. TISERAS TONTERIA TIZNADO TONTO TOÑINA (ATVN) TIZNARSE TIZNE TOPACIO tizon v. TIZNADO TOPAR TIZONA tope v. TOPAR TOPO TO TOPOGRAFIA TOA toba v. Typo TOQVE TOCA TORA TOCADO torcal v. Torcer tocador v. TOCADO torcaz v. CORITA; PALOMA TOCAL TORCAZA tocante v. TOCAR 3 TORCECVELLO TOCAR 1, 2, 3 (TACHVELA) TORCEDOR TOCINO TORCEDVRA (LAGAR) TOCON TORCER torcida v. TORCER TOCVELO TORÇVELO (PRIMA 3)

TOCHA

tochedad v, тосно

TODA TODO TOGA

TOLANOS (HAVA)

toldillo v. TOLDO; SILLA TOLDO TOLEDO

TOLODRON TOLVA TOLLER

tollir v. TVLLIR

TOLLO TOMAR TOMAR TOMILLO

TOMIZA (ESPARTO)

TORDESILLAS tordillo

TORDO (ATVRDIR)

TORIL TORMENTA TORMENTO TORMES TORMO

TORNABODA (BODA) TORNADIÇO (CONFESSO)

TORNAR

TORNASOL (GIRASOL)

TORNEAR

TORNEO (IVSTA) tornero v. TORNO tornillo v. DORNAJO TORNO (ENTORNAR) TORO TOVAZO TORO 1, 2 (TOROS DE GVISANDO) torondo v, chichon TRABAJADO TORONGIL

TORONJA TOROS DE GVISANDO (BERRACO) TRABAJAR

TOROTE

TOROZON S. TORCEDVRA TRABAJO

TORPE TRABVCO

torpedad v. Torpe TORPEDO (REMORA) tracista v. TRAZAR

torpeza v. Torpe torqueçuela v. PVERCA

TORQVEMADA

TORRE 1, 2 (CARCEL; MADALENA) TORRE DEL AZEYTE TRAER

traerse v. TRAJE TORRE DE LODONES

TORREMOCHA torreznero v. Torrezno

TORREZNO tragaçon v. TRAGAR TORTA tortada v. Torta tragadero v. TRAGAR

TORTELLA tragamalla v. MALLA

TORTERA (TORTA; RETORCER) tortero v. Tortera

tortilla v. Torta ESPETAR

TORTOLA TRAGEDIA TORTOSA TRAGINAR

TORTVGA (GALAPAGO) traginero v. TRAGINAR

TORVELLINO TORVISCO

TOS TRAILLA TOSCANA

toser v. Tos TRAJE S. TRAGO

TOSIGO TRAMA tostada v. Tostar TRAMO TOSTADO TRAMOJO TOSTAR TRAMPA

tovaja v. TOVALLAS

TOSTONES TOVA 1, 2

TOVALLAS (TOVA 1)

TOVILLO

trabajador v. TRABAJADO;

TRABAJO

trabajarse v. Trabajado

traça v. FABRICA

TRACTO TRADVCION

tradutor v. TRADVCION

TRADVZIR

trafagar v. TRAFAGO

TRAFAGO

trafagon v. TRAFAGO

TRAGAR

tragavirotes v. VIROTE 1;

TRAGO

tragon v. TRAGAR

TRAJANO

TRAMONTANA TRAMPANTOJO

trampear v. TRAMPA trampista v. TRAMPA TRANCA
TRANÇADO
TRANCAHILO

TRANCE (REMATE)
TRANCO

TRANCO
TRANCHETE
TRANQVILIDAD

tranquilla v. TRANCA transfiguracion v. FIGVRA transfigurarse v. FIGVRA

TRANZE 8. TRANCE

TRAPAÇA TRAPACETE

trapacista v. Trapaça Trapajo (Estropajo)

TRAPALA

trapazo v. Trapajo trapecista v. Trapaça traperia v. Trapo trapero v. Trapo

TRAPICHE TRAPO

traque v. TRAS

TRAS

TRASCORDARSE TRASDOBLAR TRASEGAR TRASERA

trasero v. trasera traseo (dvende) trasiego v. trasegar

TRASIJADO

TRASLADAR 1, 2

traslado v. TRASLADAR;

ARCHETYPO TRASLVZIRSE

trasmallo v. malla trasmuzarse v. çvmo TRASNOCHAR (NOCHE) TRASPALAR (PALA 1)

TRASPARENTE
TRASPASSAR

traspasso v. Traspassar

TRASPIE (PIE 2) .

TRASPLANTAR (PLANTA)

TRASPONER TRASPORTAR

traspuesta v. Trasponer

TRASTEAR

trastejador v. Trastejar

TRASTEJAR
TRASTES
TRASTORNAR
TRASTORNARSE

TRASTROCAR
TRASTROCARSE
trata v. TRATADO

TRATADO

tratamiento v. TRATADO

TRATAR 1, 2

TRATO 1, 2 (TRATAR 2)

TRAVAÇON TRAVAR TRAVAS TRAVES

travesar v. TRAVIESO travesero v. CABEÇA travesura v. TRAVIESO

TRAVIESO

TRAYCION S. TRAJANO traydor v. TRAYCION traza v. TRAZAR
TRAZAR S. TRABVCO

TREBOL
TRECE
TRECHEL
TREFE

trefedad v. TREFE

TREGVAS TREINTA

treintanario v. TREINTA

TREINTENA TREMEDAL TREMENTINA
TREMESINA

tremielgo v. TORPEDO tremulo v. TEMBLAR

TRENA TRENÇA

trençado v. TRANÇADO

TRENCAS
TRENOS

Trenque v. GVADALABIAR trepa v. ESTROPEÇAR

TREPAR

TREPICHE (TRAPICHE)

TRES

tres efes v. Besuguete

TRESQVILAR 1, 2
TREVEDES

TREVEDES

TREVEJOS S. TRAVIESO

TREZE

TRIACA (CHARLATAN)

TRIANGVLO

TRIBVLACION (ABROIO)

TRIBVNA TRIBVNO

tributario v. TRIBVTO

TRIBVTO TRICLINIO

Trico v. MOTRICO tricocon v. AZEROLA

TRIGLIFO TRIGO

trigueño v. Trigo

TRIGVERA TRILLA TRILLAR

trillo v. TRILLAR

TRINCAPIÑONES (CASCAPIÑONES) trincar v. TRINCAPIÑONES

TRINCHANTE TRINCHEA

trincheo v. TRINCHANTE

TRINCHETE

TRINQVETE (PELOTA) tripado v. TRIPAS

TRIPAS
TRIPERA
TRIPERIA

tripicallo v. Doblon trique v. Tras

triquitraque v. TRAS tris v. TRISCA; TRAS

TRISCA TRISTE

tristeza v. TRISTE

TRIVNFO

troba v. TROBAR trobador v. TROBAR

TROBAR TROCAR

troçar v. Trozo
TROCATINTE
TROCHA

trochar v. TROCHEMOCHE

TROCHEMOCHE
TROFEO
TROGLODITAS

TROIA
TROMPA

trompero v. Amor TROMPETE (CARCAX) trompicar v. ESTROPEÇAR

trompico v. TROMPA; ESTORNIJA

trompo v. Trompa

TRONAR
TRONCO 1, 2
TRONCHO
TRONERA

tronido v. Tronar

TRONO
TROPEL
TROPEZAR
TROPICOS

tropieço v. TROPEZAR

TROPOLOGIA
TROQVEO
trotar v. TROTE

TROTE troton v. TROTE

TROX

TROZO S. TROCHEMOCHE

TRVCO TRVCHA

truecaburras v. Trocar

TRVECO TRVENO

truequicambio v. TRAPAÇA

trugillano v. TRECHEL TRVHAN (CHVPAR) truhaneria v. TRVHAN trujaman v. TEVIAMAN

TRVXILLO

TV

tubo v. ALCADVZ tubulo v. ALCADVZ

TVDEL TVDELA

TVDESCO 1, 2 tuerca v. PVERCA

TVERTO TVERTOS TVETANO

TVFO (ATVFARSE)

TVI

TVLLIDVRA
TVLLIR
TVMBA
TVMBADO

TVMBAR
TVMOR
TVMVLO

TVMVLTO TVNA

tundidor v. TVNDIR

TVNDIR

TVNDA

TVNEZ

TVNICA 1, 2, 3 (DALMATICA) tunicela v. TVNICA 3; DALMATICA

TVPIR
TVRAR
TVRBA
TVRBANTE
TVRBAR
TVRBIO

turbion v. TVRBIO

TVRBI1 TVRCO

TVRDETANOS

TVRMAS (CRIADILLAS; TVFO)

TVRNIO

turno v. Tornar

TVRON

TVRQVESA 1, 2

turquesado v. TVRQVESA 1

TVRRAR TVRRON

tusilago v. vña 4

TVSON

tutela v. Tytoria

TVTOR TVTORIA

V vocal

 $\mathbf{v}$ 

VBA S. VSMAR

VBEDA

uberrimo v, vbre

VBRE
VCLES
VEBRA
VFANIA
VFANO 1

VFANO 2, s. VEZ ugier v. VSIER

VLISES VLTIMO

umbral v. Lymbral

unanimes v. vno; ANIMAL vncion s. vngir

undoso v. ONDEAR

VNGIR

VNGVENTO

unguento populon, v. ALAMO

VNICORNIO (BADA)

VNIFORME

VNIGENITO

VNION

VNIVERSAL (VNIVERSO)

VNIVERSIDAD

VNIVERSO

VNO

VNTAR

VNTO (ENXVNDIA) VÑA 1, 2, 3, 4

VÑA

VÑERO (PANARIZO)

VÑIR VRACAN

uracar v. Vracan Vraco (vracan) Vraño (hvraño)

VRBANIDAD VRBANO

urdegambre v. Eleboro

VRDIEMBRE

urdir v. Vrdiembre Vrgel s. Voto

VRINA

VRRACA (PEGA 1)

VRSVLA VSAGRE

usança v. vso

VSAR VSENDA

VSIER

VSMAR VSO

VSVAL

VSVFRVTO

VSVFRVTVARIO

VSVRA

'V consonante

VACA

VACACIONES (ESCVELA)

vacada v. нато

VACANTE

vaciadero v. VACIAR

VACIAR

vaciedad v. VACIAR

VACIO 8. VANA COSA (VACIAR)

VACVO

vadear v. VADO

VADO VAENA

vagamundo v. VAGAR

VAGAR

VAGEL S. VAGILLA VAGILLA S. VASIJA

VAGVIDO VAL VALADI

VALAGO (CAÑA)

VALENCIA
VALERA
VALERIANA
VALSAIN
VALVARTE
VALVASORES

VALVASTRO VALLA VALLADO VALLADOLID VALLE

VALLENA VALLESTA

vallesteros v. Vallesta

VANA COSA VANAGLORIA

vanaglorioso v. VANAGLORIA

VASCAS

vascongada v. vascvña Vasconia v. Gascvña

vanasto v. CANASTA vascuence v. GASCVÑA VANCA VASCVÑA VANCO (TRASTES) vasera v. Vasar VANDA 1, 2 VASIJA S. VASAR vaso 1, 2 VANDALOS vaso de yedra v. BERÇA VANDERA (VANDA 1) VANDERETA (FLAMVLA) VASSALLAGE VANDERIZO VASSALLO vandero v, vanderizo VASTAGO vando v. VANDA 2 VASVRA VANDOLERO vaxilla v. VAGILLA VAYA S. VAGVIDO VANEGAS VANGUARDIA (AVANGVARDIA; VAYETA S. VAYA GVARDIAN) VAYNA S. VAYETA VANIDAD VAYNAS VANQVERO 1, 2 VAYO S. VAYNAS (BAYO) VANQVETE VAYONA VAÑO VAZQVEZ vecino v. Barrio VAPOR VAPORAR VEDAR vaqueta v. CVERO VEDEGAMBRE vaquilla v. VACA VEDIJA 1, 2 VARA 1, 2, 3 (HAZES) vedijudo v. Vedija 1 VARA 4, S. VAREAR vedriado v. vidrio VARAL VEDRIERA VARANDA VEDVÑO VARAPALO VEEDOR VARAR VEGA VEGADA (VEZ) varauste v. VARANDA vegardo v. VIGARDO varca v. BARCA VARCO VEINTE veintena v. VEINTE VARDA VAREAR 1, 2 VEINTIQUATRO (REGIR) VEJEZ (VIEJO 1) VARETEADO VELA 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 (CANDELA; VARGAS VARILLAS S. VARETEADO VIGILIA) varita v. vara 2 velado v. velo 3 VARON (BARON) velador v. Vela 2; centinela velambres v, velo 3 VASAR S. VASO

velar v. Vela 2

VELEÑO (EMBELESADO)

VELARTE

VELESA (EMBELESADO)

VELEZ VELILLA

VELO 1, 2, 3, 4

 ${\bf VELLACADA}$ 

VEL

VELLACO (BELIAL)

VELLAQVERIA

VELLO

VELLOCINO

vellon v. vellocino; Tyson

VELLORITA

vellosa v. embelesado

velloso v. Vello

VENA (VENAS 1; AVENADO)

VENABLO (IAVALI)

VENADO

VENAS 1, 2 s. VENA venator v. VENADO

vencedor v. Vencer

VENCEJO 1, 2 (ARRAXAQVE 1;

AVION)

VENCER VENDA

VENDAR

VENDAVAL VENDER

VENDIMIA

VENDIMIADOR

venenario v. VENENO 1; IERVA

venenata v. Byfon veneno 1, 2 (ierva)

VENERA

venerable v. VENERAR

VENERAR VENERO VENGADOR VENGANÇA

VENGAR (FIDALGO 3)

VENGATIVO
VENIDA
VENIDERO
VENINO

VENIR

VENTA 1, 8. VENDER VENTA 2, 8. VENINO

VENTAJA 1, 2

VENTALLE VENTANA VENTANAJE

VENTANERA

ventero v. venta 2 ventiquatro v. regir ventisca s. viento ventisquero v. ventisca

ventor v. VIENTO

VENTOSA

VENTREGADA 8. VIENTRE VENTVRA (VENTVROSO)

VENTVROSO

VER

VERA 1, 2 VERAMVNDO Veras v. VERDAD

VERDAD

VERDE

VERDEGAMBRE S. VENDAR

(CODORNIZ)

veratro v. CODORNIZ

verdet v. CARDENCHA verdinegro v. NEGRA

VERDOLAGA (SIEMPREVIVA)

VERDOR

verdugado v. verdvgo 1

VERDVGO 1, 2, 3

VERDVRA VERDVRERA

VEREDA 8. VERDVGO 3

VEREDA VEREDA

VEREDA 9. VEREDA

VEREDA verengena v. BERENGENA

VERGA 1, 2 VERGAJO

vergante v. VERGANTIN

VERGANTIN

VIDA

VIDRIO

vidrioso v. VIDRIO

vidueño v. VID

VIEJA 8. VIEJO 2 VERGARA VIEJO 1, 2 VERGEL vergonçoso v. VERGVENÇA; VIENDRO (BIELDO) VERGVENÇAS VIENTO VERGVEAR S. VERGA 1 VIENTRE VERGVENCA (CRIADILLAS 2) VIERNES VERGVENÇAS VIGA VERGVETA 8. VERGA 2 VIGARDO VERIQUETOS vigil v. RONDA VERJA VIGILIA vermix v. GOMA VIGOR VERONICA VIGORNIA VIGVELA (VIOLONES) VERSO VERVENA S. VERAMVNDO VIL verxa v. verjaVILEZA VESTALES VILORDO vestido v. Vestidura VILORTAS (ESTORNIJA) vilorto v. VILORTAS VESTIDVRA VILLA VESTIR VETONICA VILLA DE DON ALVARO VEZ VILLA GONÇALO VEZINDAD S. VEZINO (BARRIO) VILLALON VEZINO S. VAZQVEZ villancico v. VILLANESCAS VEZO S. VEZINDAD VILLANESCAS VIAVILLANIA viaças v. BIAZAS villano v. VILLA VIAJE VILLETE VIANA VILLORIN VIANDA VIMBRE viandante v. VIAJE VINAGRE VIARACA vinagrera v. VINAGRE VIBAR 1, 2 VINDEL S. BIMESTRE vicario v. VEZ; VISORREY VINO (NIEVE) vicecanciller v. CANCILERIA vino aguado v. BERÇA vino de cañada v. CANILLA VICENTE VICIO VIÑA vicornio v. VIGORNIA viñedo v. VIÑA ' VID VIOLADO S. VIOLETA

VIOLANTE

VIOLENCIA

VIOLENTO

VIOLAR

VIOLETA violin v. VIOLONES

VIOLON

VIOLONES S. VIGVELA

VIQVE

Virdubesca v. Briviesca

VIRGEN 8. VIROTE 2
virginidad v. VIRGEN
virgula v. VARA 2
VIRIL 1, s. VIDRIO
VIRIL 2, s. VIRGEN

VIRIQUETOS
VIROTE 1, 2
VIRTVD
VIRTVOSO

VIRVEGA VIRVELAS

Viruesta v. Briviesca

VISAGE

visagra 1, 2 visarma v. armar

VISEO VISERA VISIBLE

visita v. VISITAR 2 visitador v. VISITAR 2

VISITAR 1, 2

visnaga v. VIZNAGA VISOGODO (GODO) VISOJO (BISOJO) Visoño v. BISOÑO

VISORREY VISQVIR VISTA 8. VER

VITORIA S. VENCER

VITORIA VITRIOLO VITVALLA VITVPERAR

viudez v. EMBIVDAR VIVORA s. VIARAÇA

VIZCAYA

vizcayno v. CANTABRIA

VIZCOCHO
VIZCONDE
VIZNAGA
VOCABLO
VOCABVLARIO

VOCAL
VOLVMEN
VOLVNTAD
VOLVNTARIO

voluntarioso v. volvntario

vomitar v. ARCA 2

VOMITO

vomitorio v. ÇVMA

VORAZ
VOS (DIOS)
VOSOtros v. VOS

VOTO

vozear v. Boz

vuestra merced v. dios

vuestro v. vos

VVLGO

VVLPEJA (ÇVRRA; ÇVRRADOR;

RAPOSA) vusco v. vos

X

 $\mathbf{X}$ 

XABEBA XABECA XABON

xabonar v. Xaboneria xabonera v. Xabon

XABONERIA

xabonero v. XABONERIA

XACARANDINA

XACO XAEZ XAHARRAR XALEA XALMA XALON XALOQVE (EVRO)
XAMOTRO v. CAMOTRO

XANDVLA XAPOIPAS

XAQVE 1, S. IAQVE

XAQVE 2 (XACARANDINA)

XAQVECA XAQVIMA XARA (IARA) Xaral v. IARA

XARAVE (AXARAVE)

XARAYZ

XARCIA (SARCIA)

XARDIN

XARIFA COSA

xarife v. XARIFA COSA xaropar v. XARAVE xarope v. XARAVE xaropear v. AXARAVE

XARRAGVI XARRETE XATIVA XAVALI XAVECA

xavega v. xaveca xayan v. gigante

XEME
XENABE
XENIL
XEQVE
XEREZ

XEREZ DE LA FRONTERA

XERGA

xergon v. XERGA

XERINGA XERQVERIA XERTE

XERVILLA XETA XETAFE XIBIA XIMENA XIMIA

XIRAPLIEGA xiton v. GVITON

XIXOTE XO

XORGINA

X. R. S. v. CHRISTIANO

XVCAR (IVCAR)

XVGO

Y

yedra v. BERÇA yeguada v. HATO

yerba de San Antonio v. Velesa yerba de San Pedro v. Vello-

RITA

YERMO 8. IEPES

yerva de ballesteros v. codor-

NIZ; ELEBORO

yerva de los tiñosos v. som-

BRERERA

yerva de San Juan v. Artemisa yerva estoque v. Espadaña

yesal v. IESO yeseria v. IESO yesero v. IESO yeso v. IESO yugada v. GVEBRA yuma v. GVEBRA yuncir v. VÑIR

 $\mathbf{Z}$ 

ZABORDAR ZABVLON

vuso v. svs

ZABVLLIR (BVLLIR)

ZACATIN ZAFERIA ZAFIO ZAFIR ZAGA

ZAGAL
ZAGVAN
ZAHAREÑO
ZAHARRON
ZAHEN
ZAHERIR
ZALA

ZALAGARDA
ZAMBOA
ZAMBRA

ZAG

ZAMORA (	(ZAMBRA)
ZAMPOÑA	

zanefa v. FILATERIA ZANGANO (GALAVARDO) zape v. EXE 2; HARRE

ZAQVE ZAQVIÇAMI

ZARA ZARAGATONA ZARAGOÇA

ZARCA ZARÇAGAN

ZARCILLOS ZARCO

ZARRAPASTROSO

ZATARA ZATICO ZAVILA

ZAYDA S. ZAHERIR ZAYNO S. ZAYDA

ZEBRA ZEBRATANA ZEFIRO

zelador v. Celoso zelan v. celoso ZELOS (CELOSO) ZENEFA S. ZAMPOÑA zenogil v. AHINOJARSE

zeori v. Cahori

ZERO

zerote v. ATANQVIA ZEYTE S. ZEFIRO

ZEZIMBRA ZIMBORIO ZIZAÑA

186

zizañero v. zizaña

ZOCODOVER

zocolante v. GALOCHAS

ZODIACO ZOMAS ZONA ZORÇAL

Zorita v. CORITA ZOROASTES

Zoroastres v. zoroastes ZORRA (ÇVRRA; RAPOSA)

ZOTE ZVBIA

zuçon v. cvzioZVMAQVE ZVMBAR

zumbido v. ZVMBAR

ZVMO

Zuñigas v. estvniga

ZVPIA ZVRA

zurana v. zvra zuraño v. HVRAÑO ZVRCIR (SVRCIR) zurco v. izqvierdo

ZVRDO

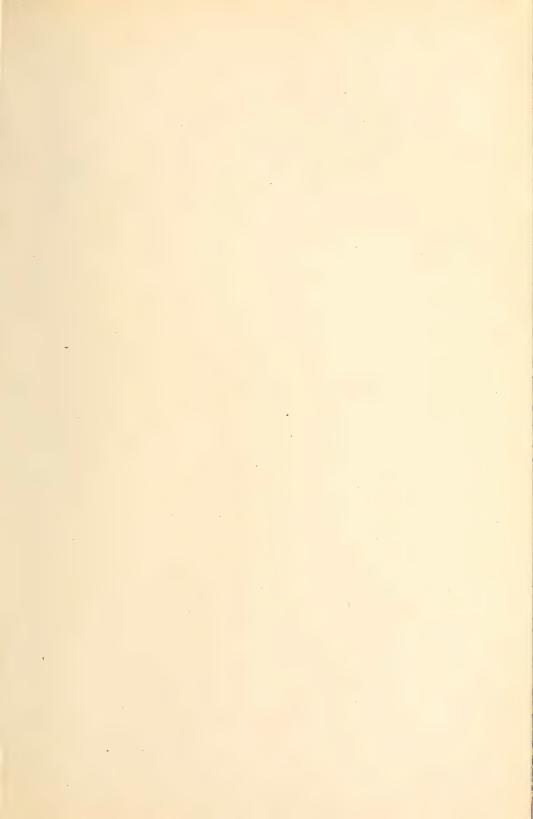
Zurita v. Çorita zurra v. zvrrapas

ZVRRAPAS ZVRRAR ZVRRIAGA

zurron v. ÇVRRA

ZVTANO ZVYÇA

zuyco v. zvyca





# INDIANA UNIVERSITY STUDIES





## STUDY No. 49

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND ADULT CRIME. Certain associations of juvenile delinquency and adult crime in Gary, Ind., with special reference to the immigrant population. By Edna Hatfield Edmondson, Ph.D.

The Indiana University Studies are intended to furnish a means for publishing some of the contributions to knowledge made by instructors and advanced students of the University. The Studies are continuously numbered; each number is paged independently.

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Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Doctor's degree in Indiana University.

# Table of Contents

		PAGE
Chapter I.	Introduction	5
	1. Subject-Matter	5
	2. Gary the City	7
	3. The Population of Gary	18
Chapter II.	Juvenile Delinquency and Adult Crime	36
	1. Statement of the Question	36
	2. Definitions	39
	3. Description of Groups Selected for Study	41
	4. Description of Method Used	45
Chapter III.	Certain Associations of Juvenile Delinquency  A. General Considerations—	50
	1. Proportions by Race or Nationality	50
	2. Kinds of Offenses	50
	3. Disposition of Cases	52
	4. Repetition of Offense	53
	B. Individual Considerations—	
	5. Age	53
	6. Sex	55
	7. Abnormality	56
	C. Cosmic Considerations—	
	8. Seasonal Delinquency	56
	D. Social Considerations—	
	9. Maladjustment	57
	10. Association in Delinquency	57
	11. Geographical Distribution	58
	12. Church Affiliation	59
	13. Home Conditions	60
	14. Home Conditions—Housing	61
	15. Home Conditions—Family Life	62
	16. Industrial Status	66
Chapter IV.	Certain Associations of Adult Crime	68
-	Section I—	
	A. General Considerations—	
	1. Proportions by Race or Nationality	68
	2. Kinds of Offenses	68
	3. Disposition of Cases	74
	B. Individual Considerations—	
	4. Age	76
	5. Sex	77
	6. Civil Condition	78
	7. Illiteracy	79
	8. Height and Weight	81

EDMO	NDSON: JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND ADULT CRIME	ల
	C. Cosmic Considerations—	
	9. Seasonal Crime	83
	D. Social Considerations—	
	10. Birthplace	83
	11. Association in Crime	85
	12. Geographical Distribution	87
	13. Industrial Status	88
	Section II	80
	Section III	91
	Section IV	92
Chapter V.	Conclusion.	94
Chapter VI.	Appendix	100
	1. Tables	100
	2. Bibliography	107

# Preface

This thesis has been prepared under the direction of Professor Ulysses G. Weatherly to meet the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Economics and Sociology in Indiana University.

Because of the short period of time covered, and because of the comparatively small number of cases included, the materials in this study have been intensively rather than extensively treated. For this reason also much of the information in this study must stand simply as materials and not as a basis of any sweeping generalities.

Since this study was prepared in 1916 many changes have taken place in Gary; in its industries, in its physical appearance, in its population, in living conditions, and in general social life. The most important of these changes perhaps are those brought about by the war and by national prohibition. The single fact of the passing of the saloon has very materially affected the social conditions in the city. No attempt has been made to bring the materials in this study up to date because of the danger of lessening the value of the study as an historical sketch of Gary in the early years of its existence. The study is offered as a picture of conditions which were true at the time of its preparation in 1916.

As originally prepared, the study contained 121 tables in Chapters III and IV. Because of the expense of publication, it has been necessary to omit most of these tables from the printed study, including only a few of the most important of them in the Appendix. These original tables with fuller explanation have been arranged and deposited in the Indiana University Library, Bloomington, Ind., where they are available to those students wishing more detailed material concerning the facts given hare, under the title, "Juvenile Delinquency and Adult Crime—Certain Associations of Juvenile Delinquency and Adult Crime in Gary, Ind., with Special Reference to the Immigrant Population—Tables for Chapters III and IV".

The author is especially indebted to Willis C. McMahan, judge of the Lake County Juvenile Court, Crown Point, Ind.; Mary A. Kirby, special officer of the Lake County Board of Children's Guardians, Gary, Ind.; Rhoda M. Welding, secretary of the Associated Charities, Gary, Ind.; J. C. Tracy, postmaster, Gary, Ind.; Pontius Heintz, chief of police, Gary, Ind.; Thomas W. Brolley, chief of Bureau of Statistics of Indiana, Indianapolis, Ind.; Wilbur A. Cogshall, professor of astronomy, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

# I. Introduction

#### 1. Subject-Matter

The movement into the United States of more than thirty-two millions of immigrants from almost every part of the world from 1820 to the present time marks one of the most remarkable migrations in history. These immigrants are divided into two chief groups, depending on the time of their coming and the chief countries from which they come: the Old Immigration, consisting chiefly of immigrants from the countries of northern and western Europe, coming to this country from 1820 to 1882; and the New Immigration, consisting chiefly of immigrants from southern and eastern Europe, coming to this country since 1882.

Depending on the point of view, the immigrant is enthusiastically credited with the great industrial expansion of the country: the improvement of labor conditions of the American working-man, by strengthening the labor unions, and by furnishing a substratum of common labor upon which has been built a superstructure of supervisors, foremen, and skilled workmen; the lessening of vice, crime, and poverty; and the addition of physical and moral personal qualities of a nature to improve our national type. With equal fervor the immigrant is condemned for lowering the standard of living of the working classes in this country; for lowering wages; for increasing vice, crime, and poverty; and for lowering our national physical and moral standards. The same statistics are used with equal facility to draw directly opposing conclusions. The real truth lies somewhere between these two points of view and must be sought in careful, impartial studies of the immigrant as he lives in this country.

He has been studied as he lives in his home in his native country, and the causes for his coming have been carefully searched out. He has been traced from his home to his place of embarkation, has been accompanied thru the indescribable steerage, has been landed at Ellis Island, has been passed thru the ordeal of entrance—the hysterical fear of being turned back—, and has been followed to his new home and established. These processes are known, and are now a matter of history, the study of which has led to definite improvement.

There remains the necessity for intensive, sympathetic, and understanding study of the immigrant as he lives in this country, not as detached from but in the light of that old home, those causes of coming, that steerage, and that entrance gate. This phase of the subject presents the usual difficulties of any contemporaneous study. The processes are not known and fixed. The ultimate reactions to conditions of American life lie far in the future and all that can be hoped for at present is the indication of certain tendencies and the presentation of certain conditions; that is, a better understanding of the nature of the problem.

Fairchild suggests two kinds of studies of the immigrant as he lives in this country.¹ One he calls a longitudinal section of the problem—the study of single racial groups of immigrants, such as the study of the Slavs by Emily G. Balch; the other a transverse section of the problem—the study of particular phases of the life of immigrants of all races or nationalities living in the same group; such as housing conditions among immigrants, the food of immigrants, assimilation, etc. In this study the latter plan is followed: that is, juvenile delinquency and adult crime are studied in their relation to immigrants of all races or nationalities living in a single community.

There are two characteristic dwelling-places of the immigrant in this country: first, compact colonies in large cities; and second, residence sections of mining camps and smaller industrial cities called "patches". The first offers perhaps the advantage in the study of racial and national problems as isolated problems in the light of conditions in the old home of the immigrant, because such communities grafted on to an American community take little part in public affairs, but are occupied largely with their own businesses of life, forming a community within a community. The second type of dwelling-place, the "patches" of mining camps and smaller industrial cities, furnishes a much more profitable field for studies of the immigrant in his relation to American institutions and conditions of American life, for here oftentimes the immigrant takes his part in the building up of the whole community, socially and politically as well as industrially. Such a community lends itself more readily to the purposes of this study.

The immigrant population of Gary, Ind., has been selected for this study for three chief reasons. First, this population

¹Fairchild, pp. 213-214. ²Fairchild, p. 234.

offers opportunity for a transverse study because it has present in it most of the various racial or national groups now in this country, and now coming to this country; second, in Gary the immigrant population was on the ground as early as the native born Americans of native born parents, so that whatever the community represents is due alike to immigrants and to native Americans; third, a personal acquaintance with the history of the city and with its people, resulting from two years' work in its limits as juvenile court officer, is of great advantage in knowing where materials may be found and in making access to them easier.

In order to make a satisfactory study of juvenile delinquency and adult crime in the *immigrant* population of Gary, these pathological manifestations must be studied in relation to all race or nationalty groups in Gary, for the sake of comparisons. And in order to understand that part of the population included in juvenile delinquency and adult crime, it is necessary to make a brief introductory survey of the character of the city of Gary and of its general population.

## 2. GARY, THE CITY

To the outsider, interest in the city of Gary centers about one of three things: its industries, its school system, or its dramatic growth. Shot thru these interests and dominating them is the larger universal interest—that of the character of the population which has made these things possible and which in turn has been made possible by them.

It is very difficult in writing the story of any contemporary city for even a resident of the city to distinguish history from romantic tradition, to distinguish the present of any given moment from the past and future of that moment, and to refrain from entering upon speculations as to the future. Much more difficult is it to write the story of a city which from a population of nothing in 1906 has reached a population of 40,000 in 1916.

The materials for this brief survey of Gary, the city, are taken from personal knowledge of the city, from personal interviews with men and women who have helped to make the city and are helping in its growth, from official reports of the city of Gary, from official reports of the county of Lake in which the city is situated, from official reports of the state of Indiana, from

the census of the United States of 1910, and from magazine articles and books.3

Perhaps no city in America has a more interesting life story than Gary. In picturesqueness it rivals the gold and silver cities of the far West in early days. While those cities were built around the mining and milling of silver and gold, Gary has its foundation in the manufacture of a so-called baser metal, that of iron and steel, and of iron and steel products, an industry whose stock manipulation in the great financial centers of the country is certainly not inferior in the magnitude of its financial operations to that of gold and silver mining stock of early days, tho it may lack some of the spectacular features and be attended perhaps with somewhat greater dignity and somewhat calmer deliberation.

The city of Gary apparently sprang up in a night on the southern shore of Lake Michigan from a barren waste of sand dunes into a city complete attracting to it 40,000 people⁴ of some 47 racial or national groups who give to it its peculiar international character, lending a touch of Old World color: now as a bridal party dressed in bright colors dear to the immigrant heart gaily escort the white-veiled bride and proud-faced groom thru the streets; again as a solemn funeral procession slowly marches behind the hearse on the way to the photographer who will take a picture of the dead covered over with flowers and surrounded by living friends and relatives; or finally as many groups join together in native folk costume, each group with its band playing its own national airs, in one big political parade, shouting over and over again "Knotts, Knotts, Knotts", the name of the candidate for mayor, the only English word many of them know.

The city is full of many strange inconsistencies. Broadway, running thru the center of the city, is a beautiful paved street five miles long and 100 feet wide with cement sidewalks its entire length. On its northern extremity it is flanked by public buildings and business houses of which any city might be proud. And yet just two squares west of this same Broadway and only a few squares south of the city's beautiful residence district is a typical immigrant settlement of tar paper shacks promiscuously set down in the sand at various angles, forming a little village

³Sources: Survey 29:13, 781; 22:20; 27:1145; "Satellite Cities", Graham Romeyn Taylor, Independent 70:337; Putnams 5:643; Annual Report Indiana Bureau of Statistics, 1913, pp. 134, 529; McClures 41:61; American Review of Reviews 37:354.

⁴In 1916.

community: each shack with its number, 56, 57, etc. Each shack has its accompaniment of sheds, dog houses, chicken coops, and stack of hay or swamp grass gathered from the prairie. Cows, horses, dogs, geese, pigs, chickens, and beautiful children is droll looking clothes tumble over each other in the sand. In the evening the women come in along the paths from the prairies, wearing their shawls and kerchiefs over their heads and their short, full skirts, and bending under bundles of sticks tied on their backs. As they gather in groups laughing and chatting a few minutes before separating for their various shacks, the red of the setting sun behind them throws this picture of peasant life into a bold relief that quite blots out another picture only two squares away, a picture of the hustle and bustle of an American business day drawing to a close.

A street car loaded with workmen from one of the most perfectly appointed and equipped modern steel plants in the country turns off Broadway and clangs past, disturbing the line of march of a flock of geese which two little Italian girls, Santina and Carmella, are driving home to their father's shack—geese whose feathers are to go into great fluffy mattresses between which the children will sleep snug and warm against the winter winds filtering in thru the cracks and crevices of their poor little shack.

A visitor in Gary is immediately struck with the fact that there are few old people. In the streets, in the offices, in the shops, in the mills, in the homes, people are young. Youth pervades the atmosphere. Perhaps it is this youth, both of people and of city, which accounts for the air of hope, of enthusiasm, of confidence in the future, which everywhere obtains. Everybody is a self-appointed "booster". Occasionally a "knocker" is heard, but he is usually a very recent arrival, and only a few months' residence is necessary to convert him into an ardent enthusiast.

From the streets the visitor carries away with him the impression of color, of music, and of movement; from the offices and shops, of energy, of efficiency, and of stability.

The accompanying diagram shows Gary located at the head of Lake Michigan in Indiana 26 miles southeast of Chicago's downtown, one of a series of cities on the industrial edge of Chicago. In 1906 when the United States Steel Corporation felt the need of greater facilities for the manufacture of steel the geographical location of a site for additional steel plants became a vital question. The center of steel construction was moving

west from Pittsburgh because of the great development of the West; therefore the center of the manufacturing and the distributing of steel should be somewhere in the Middle West. Chicago had already established its claim as such, but real estate values and crowded conditions there were points to be considered. The tract of land at the head of Lake Michigan in Indiana offered advantages for the production and distribution of steel as good, and in some ways better, than Chicago. It was



THE CHICAGO SATELLITES⁵

midway between the ore beds of the North and the coal beds of the South; it was in the path of the great east and west railroads already built into Chicago; it was easily accessible to ore boats from the lakes; and in addition to these facts there was an almost unlimited area of cheap unimproved land offering plenty of room to grow. The nearness of Chicago offered the advantages of its labor market, the housing facilities of its southern suburbs, and easy access to the president of the subdivision whose offices were in Chicago. It is also said that the laws of the state of

 $^{^5 \}mbox{``Satellite Cities'', Graham Romeyn Taylor, Survey, Oct. 5, 1912. By permission of the Survey Associates, Inc.$ 

Indiana are especially favorable to great manufacturing corporations.

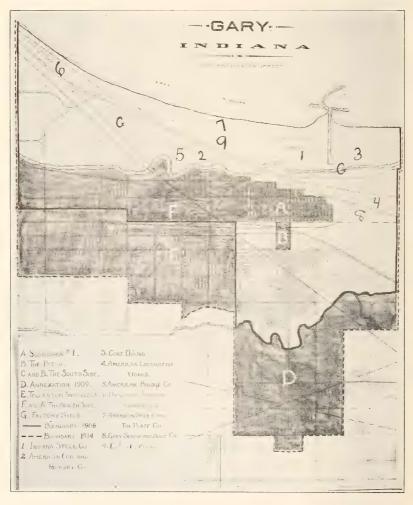
The United States Steel Corporation acquired a strip of land in this location 8 miles in length and averaging 2 miles in width fronting Lake Michigan. This site is in a region of great geological and botanical interest. Near the lake shore bare shifting ridges of drifting sand bury everything in their path, the surface as it changes with the winds showing the wave formation of the water in the bordering lake. Back a mile or so from the lake these ridges of sand 20 to 40 feet high are sparsely covered with scrub oak, and between them are ponds or marshes famed for water lities and water fowl. Growing on the ridges and in the sags between them are many varieties of wild flowers from the gaudy flame color of the "prairie fire" to the delicate colors of the wild orchids. Thru this region the sluggish Grand Calumet river flows to South Chicago where it empties into the lake. The land was valueless for agricultural purposes—land which now⁶ at what is the intersection of Broadway and Fifth avenue is valued at \$1,000 a front foot. In 1906 there was much work preliminary to the establishment of an industrial city: a river must be moved, gullies must be filled in, a harbor or shelter must be built so ore boats could get nearer the shore than a half-mile. and much of the plant must be built on made land.

The United States Steel Corporation needed thousands of men to build and operate its mills: the families of these men needed houses, furniture, food, clothes, schools, churches, and other necessities. The Steel Company was deeply interested in getting a town built and populated rapidly. Necessity drove the United States Steel Corporation to build not only the plants but also the city of Gary. For these tasks it organized two subsidiary companies: the Indiana Steel Company to build the plant, and the Gary Land Company to build the town, both plant and town to be under the same municipal jurisdiction.

As the primary reason for the existence of Gary at all is its industries, a brief consideration must be given to them in order to understand the population. These industries consist of the Indiana Steel Company subsidiary to the United States Steel Corporation, and a group of other plants and companies either subsidiary or independent, many of them using the steel manufactured by the Indiana Steel Company. The map on page 12 shows that all but two of the plants are located in the narrow

^{61916.} 

strip between the Grand Calumet river and the lake. Almost in the center of the strip is located the mill of the Indiana Steel Company, marked 1 on the map, and just on the east is the harbor and slip 250 feet wide and a half-mile in from the shore. This



plant begun in 1906 turned out the first steel rail on January 13, 1909. Its problem was that of tremendous buildings put up with rapidity and perfection. Plans for the whole plant must be complete before any part of it could be put up, so that it might grow systematically and in 25 or 50 years be as perfect a plant as if all had been built at one time.

From the map on page 12 will be seen the sites of other plants: 2, the American Car and Foundry Company, independent; 3, the Coke By-Products Company; 4, the American Locomotive Company, independent; the repair shops of the Chicago, Lake Shore, and Eastern Railway; 5, the American Bridge Company, subsidiary; 6, the Universal Portland Cement Company, subsidiary; 7, the American Sheet and Tin Plate Company; 8, the Gacy Screw and Bolt Company; and 9, the switch yards and repair shops of the Elgin, Joliet, and Eastern, the Steel Company's railway. These plants furnish employment for a large part of the population of Gary, and give it its industrial character.

While the Indiana Steel Company was building the plant, the Gary Land Company platted two square miles just south of this strip as the original town of Gary, named for Judge E. H. Gary, the chairman of the executive committee of the United States Steel Corporation. The company decided to carry on the actual building operations of the town itself for three reasons: first, in order that the town might be built rapidly enough so that when the plant opened there would be houses for its workmen; second, few workmen would have enough ready money on hand to build their own homes; and third, if the building were left to others there would inevitably be land speculation and abnormally high prices. The shaded portion A on the map on page 12 shows "Subdivision No. 1", the original area plotted by the Gary Land Company.

It is said that Gary was a city complete from the start—that it shaped itself according to a completely formed idea. For a long time after 1906 there was no outward sign of a city. The ridges of sand were leveled and the town laid out providing for streets, sites for parks, public buildings, and schools. Then began the building of the city below the ground—the laying of sewers, water pipes, gas mains, electric light conduits in what were to be alleys, and the erection of a water intake. Thus at enormous preliminary expense was placed all the underground work of a capacity to serve a city of 300,000 people, so that in later years streets and alleys will not have to be torn up as the 'town grows, and so that the original sale price of each lot will have covered the price of all the improvements. When the underground work was done the streets were laid and the building above ground begun.

The street plan of Gary is the old-fashioned rectangle. The two principal streets originally laid out were Broadway, running

south from the gates of the mill, a street 100 feet wide with cement walks 18 feet wide, and Fifth avenue, running at right angles to it, a street 80 feet wide with correspondingly wide walks. Other streets are 60 feet wide and are laid out according to the original plan of these two streets. Alleys 30 feet wide run the long way of every block.

Subdivision No. 1 was platted with a business district and a residence district. In the business district the Land Company sold lots to outsiders with the provision that buildings of a certain class should be put up in a certain time, and with the provision that with two exceptions no intoxicating liquors should be sold on these lots.⁷

In the residence district the lots sold for the price of the land plus the cost of the improvements—that is, the paving, sidewalks, sewers, etc.; and if built on, plus the cost of the house with 5 per cent interest on the amount invested. In the beginning the Company built 506 dwellings, selling as fast as possible. Lots were also sold to individuals for residence building purposes with certain building restrictions land down by the Company. The purchaser must put up a residence of a certain standard costing from \$2,000 to \$5,000, and the plans must be approved by an agent of the Company; the building must also be completed by a certain time after the purchase of the lot—usually 18 months; a uniform building line of 25, 29, or 30 feet, depending on the district; and no intoxicating liquors to be sold on the premises. In order to avoid speculation each person might buy only one lot at a time and build on it; but when his building was completed he might sell, buy another lot, build and sell again, etc. This scheme aided in the more rapid building of the town.

In a district in the northwest part of Subdivision No. 1 the Company put up a number of cheaper residences. This district known as "Kirkville" was occupied mostly by workmen of the Chicago, Lake Shore, and Eastern railway.

In the northeast corner of the subdivision, the Company built a number of very much cheaper houses described as double dry-goods boxes, of five rooms and a bath each. This district was popularly known as "Hunkeyville" and was designed for the low-paid immigrant laborer. The experience of the Company with this type of tenant was so discouraging because of the filth, overcrowding, keeping of boarders, misunderstandings, and mis

⁷This was before national prohibition. See Preface.

use of the property, that these tenants were ordered to move out and the houses were put in condition for other tenants of higher order.

In the original plans for the city of Gary, sufficient land was not bought, and later when this mistake was recognized and the Company found that it must have more land for the town, it discovered that a strip (shaded portion B on map, page 12) of about 5 blocks fronting on Broadway had been bought up by private individuals who would not sell by the acre or at all at a price the Steel Company was willing to pay. The Company bought the land north, south, east, and west of this district and imposed certain restrictions upon it; but this strip which could not be bought remained independent, and became known as "The Patch" with the characteristics of other "patches" at mining camps, and fringing other industrial cities. There were no restrictions in "The Patch". The working-men and temporary transients who were building the town and the plants flocked to this part of the town. They wanted to be able to get beer as often as they liked, and in as large quantities as they wanted, and here there were no restrictions on its sale. Saloons, boarding-houses, and temporary residences sprang up on all sides. "The Patch" was platted amid great excitement and speculation. There were no building restrictions, so every man built for himself. It is not surprising that "The Patch" had structures not tolerated in the other parts of Gary, tho many of its buildings were quite up to the standard of those in Subdivision No. 1. "The Patch" was compelled to lay its own sewers, water mains, etc., and lots here were loaded with special assessments. Workers on low wages were inveigled into buying lots, the payments for which in instalments was a heavy burden on their families. Boxlike frame houses were put up as rapidly as possible but could not keep pace with the increasing need for housing accommodations. During the period of construction "The Patch" practically ruled Gary. The Steel Company isolated it in a way by failing to improve the land adjoining, but this had very little effect on its life and activities.

The story of these two parts of Gary in its early history has been gone into thus fully because of its significance in the present city. The map on page 12 shows Subdivision No. 1 as the shaded portion A. This district dominates the life of that part of Gary north of the Wabash railroad known as the "North Side", the shaded portions F and A on the map. Just south of this, from

the Wabash railroad tracks to Fifteenth street and from Broadway to Madison is the small district originally known as "The Patch", shown on the map as shaded portion B. This district has stamped its character in many ways on the life of the district, given on the map as the shaded portions C and B, known as Gary's "South Side". Thus there are in Gary today these two characteristic districts: the North Side characterized by regulation, order in planning and in building, good housing conditions, good streets. sanitary conditions, and only two places where intoxicating liquors are sold;8 and the South Side where are most of the saloons, crowded conditions, houses of prostitution, unsanitary conditions, and poor living conditions. In the North Side live, in general, the better-to-do: skilled workmen, professional men. business men—principally the higher social and economic classes of native born Americans and the Old Immigration. In the South Side, in general, live the unskilled common laborers and small tradesmen, principally of the New Immigration, and the Colored, but with the lower social and economic classes of Americans and the Old Immigration.

The map shows the original boundary of Gary in 1906 outlined in heavy solid line. There have been about 300 subdivisions platted since that time. The district just south of the Little Calumet river, shown on the map as shaded portion D, was annexed in 1909, and Tolleston, the large district to the west, shown on the map as shaded portion E, annexed in 1910. Such has been the expansion of Gary till at the present time it measures about 7 miles from east to west and about 5 from north to south, including about 31 square miles. The present boundary of Gary is shown on the map in heavy broken line.

The political history of Gary is quite picturesque but cannot be entered into here at any great length. With an army of workmen and but a very small settled population, Gary was incorporated as a town on July 17, 1906. It became a city of the fifth class under the laws of the state of Indiana in October, 1909, a city of the fourth class in October, 1910, and a city of the second class January 1, 1915.

In the whole history of Gary, housing facilities have never been sufficient to satisfy the needs, because of the fact that it takes time to build houses. Even as late as 1911 it was estimated that not over half of the people working in Gary could find

⁸This was in 1916 before national prohibition went into effect. See Preface. ⁹1916.

homes there, and in April, 1916, it is predicted that the temporary shack must be resorted to in order to shelter workmen for additional building. The problem at first was the temporary housing of men to build the town and the plant. They were carried thru one winter without permanent shelter—among the sand dunes first appearing a city of tents. Then came the city of shacks. These shacks are structures of rough boards covered with tar paper or canvas, put up by land-owners as temporary shelters, or by squatters as homes. Many of these have been pulled down and their building is now prohibited in Gary, but some of them are still occupied by workmen and immigrant laborers and show very bad conditions of sanitation, crowding, etc.

After the tar paper shack came the city of brick, cement, and stone. The Gary Land Company put up 506 houses on the North Side, substantially built and attractive in appearance, to be leased to its workmen, or preferably sold at prices from \$2,000 to \$5,000. The American Sheet and Tin Plate Company put up 110 cement houses to be rented to its employees. The employees renting these houses are mostly English and American skilled workmen. The American Bridge Company has put up in its subdivision (marked F on the map) two miles west of Broadway 294 houses for its employees in executive positions. These three sets of company houses have been put up by the same land company, but show a diversity in construction differing from the frequently ugly uniformity of wholesale building. Other houses have been built by individuals. The buildings in Kirkville and Hunkeyville have already been described.

These houses are all located on the North Side and are occupied by families of skilled workmen, better-paid workmen, officials, professional men, tradesmen, etc.,—mostly American born, English, Irish, German, and others of the Old Immigration. The problem has been only to get a sufficient number of houses.

On the South Side of Gary, however, the problem is this same one with the addition of other more menacing ones. Here is where live the low-paid immigrant common laborer and his family, most of the colored people, and those of the lower social and economic classes of Americans and Old Immigration. The homes here are mostly flimsy, boxlike frame houses, barrack-like shacks of "apartments", and rough board tar paper shacks designed for single "dwellings". The conditions of the slum district are here seen—crowding, both of buildings on lots and of people in

the buildings, bad sanitary conditions, the practice of keeping many boarders, etc. Not all the housing conditions on the South Side are as dark as these—some are as good as those on the North Side, but this is the prevailing condition.

In Subdivision No. 1, as has been explained, provisions were made that intoxicating liquors might be sold in only two places. There was one large saloon on Broadway near the entrance to the Steel mills, and a bar in the Gary Hotel on Broadway and Sixth street. South of this district in the section not owned by the Land Company, that is, in "The Patch", there were no restrictions as to the number of saloons. In 1911 it was estimated that there was one saloon to every 88 people, and in 1913, one to about 151 people. In 1910 there were 246 saloons; in 1911 the Indiana law raised the Gary license fee to \$725 a year, and added the provision that no new saloons might be licensed till the proportion of saloons fell to one to every 500 population. The number of licenses issued in this year, 1911, fell to 194, and in 1912 and 1913 the number was the same. In 1913 the amount of money received in license fees amounted to \$87,691.60.

The growth of the institutions of Gary has kept pace with that of the town and reflects the character of the population as no other phase of the city life can. They will be referred to here only briefly, however, as they have been so adequately described elsewhere. The school system which was established at the very beginning of the city on its present basis has been a subject of study by outsiders for some years now. The public library, the parks, and playgrounds are a part of the recreational and educational program; the churches of many denominations, Catholic, Protestant, and Hebrew; the social settlements and Y.M.C.A., are a part of the religious and educational program. The Steel Company has its own hospital, and in addition to this there are two others: one denominational hospital and the city hospital. In the matter of public utilities the city manages the police, fire, and health departments; water, light, and gas are furnished by a subsidiary of the Steel Corporation, the Gary Heat, Light, and Water Company, whose franchise may be acquired by the city at a later date; and the franchise for the street railway is held by an independent company.

#### 3. THE POPULATION OF GARY

There have been two stages in the growth of the population of Gary: the construction period and the operating period. The

first population, that of the construction gangs, was temporary and numbered some 6,000 workmen. With the exception of the foremen and skilled laborers necessary for construction work. these workmen were chiefly of the lowest grade of immigrant laborers who came without families, crowding into tents and shacks. They presented living conditions such as those of the ordinary railway construction gangs. As the construction period gave way somewhat to the period of operating, the character of the population changed. Some of the members of this population, the construction gangs, remained in Gary still as construction gangs, for the work of building still went on; some moved on to other works of this sort; some became workers in the mills and took up a permanent residence in Gary, instituting some sort of family life, some sending for families if they had any, some sharing in the family life of others, or taking to the boardinghouse outright as a permanent home place. Other permanently employed steel workers moved in—skilled laborers, foremen, office men, officials, etc. Along with this population came the element identified with the town—storekeepers, launderers, newspaper men, lawvers, physicians, other professional and business men, etc. The population now became permanent in character and presented conditions of community life.

The population at the present time is primarily an industrial population, for Gary is an industrial city. This population is made up of skilled and unskilled laborers, foremen, clerks, officials, etc., of the steel mill, subsidiary plants, and other mills and plants. Aside from this population there is, as given above, the population identified with the development of the town. A study of the city directory is interesting as showing how this population is employed in 1914 aside from the great industries, and also as indicating in great degree the peculiar needs and wants of Gary. For example, the great number of real estate dealers indicates the newness of the town; the great number of architects, lumber dealers, contractors and builders, brick and cement dealers, electricians, etc., indicate the great amount of building operation going on; the number of banks, the amount of financial operations; the number of hotels and restaurants suggests the fact that the population does not live in normal family groups; the number of lawyers, that the population is given to much litigation; the number of saloons and breweries, that the population demands liquors; the listing of a maker

^{101916.} Before national prohibition.

of flags of all nations, that the patriotic population is not a homogeneous American born population; etc.

Without doubt the most interesting part of the population is that gathered in "The Patch" and other parts of Gary where the New Immigration chiefly lives.

One of the finest things these people bring to America is their love of the home; and the sacrifices they make in their eagerness to own a home in the New World are often mistaken for selfish greed or interpreted as a lack of appreciation of the privacy of home life. On the contrary, they really have the highest home ideals, but necessity often drives them to yield up such ideals for a time. Most of the homes are bought on credit and are loaded with heavy mortgages, to meet the payments on which the general practice of keeping boarders is followed. Under one system of keeping boarders, the wife in the family receives \$3 or \$4 a month from each man in return for doing his washing, his cooking, and furnishing him a place to sleep. Under this system each man keeps his own grocery book and buys his own food. To make payments on homes in some cases naïve methods are resorted to. There have been cases where the family put all its earnings into these monthly payments, depending upon public charity for food and coal.

These homes of the immigrant do not escape the modern tendency to institutionalize the home. While it is true that the Day Nursery cares for its children with a high degree of efficiency, it also puts a premium on the mother's work away from home; and while the hospital gives to the sick a chance utterly impossible in these homes, it also takes away in part that sense of responsibility for the weak. Such institutionalizing influences destroy those finer feelings of self-dependence and responsibility engendered in the inner circle of the home.

These immigrant people are extremely charitable. If they do not know where the next meal is to come from they will share with those worse off than they, and take them into their homes. An Italian family was evicted for failure to pay the rent on a miserable little shack. They found refuge with another family who themselves had asked for financial aid, and who had so little room that in order to make a place for the evicted family, a baby's bed must be put in the kitchen behind the stove, and some of the children must be taken into bed with the man and his wife. During a period of business depression when many of the men were out of work little immigrant stores dotted here and

there carried their customers' accounts to the limit, trusting that they would be paid when times got better. Some of the accounts amounted to more than \$100. One little Hungarian girl said people owed her father \$1,000 in grocery bills, and until these were paid she could not have shoes and clothes sufficient to go to school.

Not only do they share their sorrows but their joys. The coming of a new baby is a matter of rejoicing to the whole neighborhood. One evening a man went to the store to select an outfit of clothing for a new baby. As he turned over the little garments he squared his shoulders and his eyes shone—for a baby whose only claim on his affections was the fact that its parents had once lived for a short time in his house.

They are quite sociable, visiting much at each others' houses. A special friend is affectionately referred to as partner. Not only do they visit much among each other, but they enjoy visiting with Americans whenever chance offers, and are grateful and appreciative of visits from Americans. One American lady, who. because of her rare sympathy and ready understanding, counts her friends among the immigrants by the scores, is the recipient of all sorts of things. As she was passing along the street one day, an immigrant woman stopped her, ran into the house, dug out from an old-fashioned trunk a table cover of beautiful handcrocheted lace, and with a brief "Tomorrow Christmas", pressed the gift into the lady's hand. On another occasion two young Greek fellows brought to her home a large package wrapped in many thicknesses of paper. As they awkwardly extended the package they stammered "for you", and a careless movement of the lady's hands as she wonderingly received it brought out the sharp exclamation "You break it!" On unwrapping the bundle there was disclosed a gorgeous wedding-cake—the gavest thing one could hope to see. It was eighteen inches square and of three stories, with pink, vellow, and green icing, the whole decked with artificial flowers and green leaves.

They are always polite, especially to those who have befriended them. However, their courtly graces and quaint Old World bows to American ladies contrast somewhat curiously with their constant use of profanity, English words early acquired from American labor bosses and fellow-workmen, and used by the immigrants with no intended disrespect, but merely to air their knowledge of English. Very pathetic sometimes are the situations due to differences between labor conditions in America and Europe. Some of these peasant immigrants are highly skilled hand-workers in their native country, but must drop to the ranks of unskilled labor in this country because there is no place for their particular kind of skill in American industrial processes. For example, skilled shoemakers in the old country are accustomed to making the whole shoe and cannot bring themselves to work in shoe factories where they must be confined to work on parts, or mechanical processes only. They do not go into repair shops—they want to make shoes. So it is with watchmakers and wood-carvers. They find themselves without a trade in this country, simply because there is no demand for their special kind of skill.

As in any American community, the amusements of the immigrants vary with the facilities at hand. The picture shows are crowded with spectators of which 90 per cent are immigrant men. Some families do gc as families, and some women and young people, but mostly men. Many men go to the saloon to visit, partly because of poor housing conditions. Poolrooms and clubrooms are largely patronized, especially by the Greeks, most of whom do not have families in this country.

Many of their amusements are, however, racial or national in character. The Italians, for example, have their own dramatic club, and certain national clubs have social features, as the Croatian Sokol Society. They are very fond of dancing and feasting, and it is a poor sort of occasion which is not celebrated with one or the other or both. In some cases christenings are followed by dances and feasts at which gifts of money are made to the baby—money to be put in the bank till he is 21 years old. Weddings, too, are often followed by a feast and a dance at which each man makes to the bride a certain gift in money for the privilege of dancing with her. At the end of the dance the bride may find herself in possession of a considerable sum of money—enough to pay for her trousseau and furniture for her home. Some of the well-to-do bridegrooms with advanced American notions are beginning to object to this custom of giving money to the bride as reflecting on their ability to provide for her financially.

The women in the home cling longest to native customs. It is they who wear the native costumes, who wear the short, full skirts and the kerchiefs. Many of them wear black, and

¹¹In 1916. Before national prohibition. See Preface.

even in the hottest parts of the summer they can be seen on the streets in heavy black woolen skirts and white waists. Only the younger women and those most advanced in the process of Americanization wear corsets. In their eagerness to adopt American fashions of dress, some ludicrous effects are achieved—such for example as the wearing of white or gay-colored satin party dresses on the streets in broad daytime.

The women in the home learn English very slowly. The men feel that they have to learn the language of the country, but the mothers seem to have little desire to learn. They seem to fear the ridicule of their children, who as very little tots acquire a knowledge of at least the one universal English word "sure" which they use on every occasion in answer to every question put to them in English whether they understand it or not.

These women do so many things for themselves that American women have long ago given up. They bake their own bread, half-sole their children's shoes, make their own sauerkraut in the fall, and otherwise prepare for the winter. Many of them make beautiful crocheted lace, executing the most intricate patterns very swiftly. They crochet little jackets, bedspreads, scarfs, pillow-cases, lace insertion and edging.

Children are taught in the home many things concerning the mysteries of human life. While such things are talked of freely and quite plainly, they are not talked of unnecessarily, and the discussion is never accompanied by giggling and silly actions. One family had lost a baby on shipboard on the way over from the old country. The little girls in the family were so happy when they were told that a new baby was to come into the home. It was beautiful to see them help their mother with the little clothes, and very pathetic to see their heart-broken grief and disappointment when the baby lived only a few days to wear the clothes.

These New Immigrants, especially the younger ones, are eager to become Americans and to be so regarded. It is altogether unfortunate that in the process of so-called Americanization they should take on so many of the less desirable qualities of our native born Americans at the expense of so much that is fine and beautiful in their own natures, so much that is worth preserving in their native manners and customs. Nothing is left untouched in the process. Their very names suffer by the change. The beautiful Roumanian name Paraschina Rotarin has become Pearl Rotar; the Croatin family name Millocivich has

become Miller; the Polish family name Kienzynski has become Kirsh; the Polish Christian name Kalada is Clara; Wladislaw is Walter; Aniello, Nellie; and Michaelo, Mike, etc. These changes take place in the mills, in the offices, in the shops, whereever the immigrants come in contact with Americans—even in the public schools. Great inconvenience is often caused by such changes. For example, a man whose name is Majerski had no little difficulty in proving his right to an inheritance in his native country because a clerk in the mills was too hurried to get his name correct and the man himself too indifferent to insist that Majerski and Morris are not the same!

The population of Gary has grown so fast that United States Census figures for the year 1910 cannot be taken as a basis of a study of the same population in 1913, 1914, 1915, or 1916. In the absence of accurate data for these years, however, some profit can be obtained from a study of the census figures of 1910. Census figures are also unsatisfactory in the matter of race and nationality for they are based on country of birth and not on race and nationality, the disparity in the figures for which has been discussed above.

In the United States Census for 1910 for the population of Gary, information is given as to the total number of population and rate of growth; color and nativity; country of birth of the foreign born and country of birth of the parents of the native born of foreign parentage; sex; age groups 6 to 14, 6 to 20, and males 21 years of age and over; illiteracy; school attendance by ages; and dwellings and families. In this introductory survey of the general population of Gary, this outline is followed in general. Figures obtainable from any other source and for any other years have been made use of. Wherever possible, comparisons have been made with the population of the state of Indiana and of the United States.

It is difficult to get correct figures for the population of Gary for any years except 1906, the year it was incorporated, in the beginning of which the population was nothing, and the year 1910 when the United States census figures were taken, in which year the population is 16,802. The population increased from nothing to 16,802 in four years. A knowledge of the growth of the industries and the development of the town since 1910 leads to the conclusion that a study of the population in 1914, 1915, 1916 cannot be based on figures for 1910.

Some reliable estimates have been made of the number of population for various years—estimates entirely consistent with the census figures and with conditions in the city of Gary. Table 1a shows the population of Gary by years from 1906 to 1916, inclusive.

POPULATION OF GARY, BY YEARS 1906-191612

1906	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1914	1915	1916
0	10,223	10,246	16,802	21,000	30,000	43,000	37,000	40,000 January 1.

PER CENT OF INCREASE IN POPULATION, 1900–1910, IN GARY AND RATE OF INCREASE IN URBAN POPULA-LATION IN LAKE COUNTY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES13

Gary ¹⁴	Lake County	Indiana	United States
16,802 per cent	198.3 per cent	30.5 per cent	34.8 per cent

In 1908 it was estimated that the population was 10,223; in 1909 a census was taken by the Gary Land Company, showing 10,246; in 1910 the United States census figures are given as 16,802; in 1911 an estimate in round numbers was made as 21,000; in 1912 as 30,000; in the years 1914, 1915, and 1916 the United States postal authorities obtained figures showing for 1914 a population in round numbers of 43,000; in 1915 because of the business depression the figures fell to 37,000, and the first part of 1916 rose again to 40,000 in round numbers. Thus, it will be seen that in 10 years the population rose from nothing to 40,000, and the rate of increase may be said to be 40,000 per cent for this 10-year period, if for the sake of the mathematical calculation it is considered that in 1900 the population was one.

Table 1b shows the per cent of increase of population from 1900 to 1910 in Gary and the rate of increase of the urban population in Lake county (the county in which Gary is situated), in Indiana, and in the United States. These two tables show the

 ¹²Independent 70:337; U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. II, p. 531; Survey 29:781, 88,
 ⁹¹; Survey 22:20, 31, 33; McClure's 41:66; Putnams 5:652.
 ¹³U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. II, pp. 556, 548; U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, p. 60.
 ¹⁴For the sake of the mathematical calculation the population of Gary in 1900.
 ¹⁵Considered to be one.

abnormally rapid growth of the population of Gary with respect to the urban population of the county, the state, and the nation.

Table 2 shows the proportions by color and nativity of the population of Gary, of Lake county, of Indiana, and of the United

2. PROPORTIONS BY COLOR AND NATIVITY OF THE POPULA-TION OF GARY, OF LAKE COUNTY, OF INDIANA, AND OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1910¹⁵

	Gary Per cent	Lake County Per cent	Indiana Per cent	United States Per cent
Native white of native parentage Native white of foreign or mixed	26.7	31.1	78.9	53.8
parentage	$21.9 \\ 49.1$	$\frac{31.5}{36.7}$	13.0 5.9	20.5 14.5
Negro	2.3	0.6	2.2	10.7
Other		0.1		0.5

States for the year 1910. The population of Gary is abnormal in color and nativity composition in its unduly large proportion of foreign born and of native born of foreign or mixed parentage.

The population of Gary has come from all parts of the United States and from many foreign countries. In determining nationalities in the population of Garv, the United States figures are not satisfactory because they give only country of birth, and this, where either the individual or both his parents were born in foreign countries. Table 3a shows by number and per cent the country of birth of the foreign born in Gary, in Indiana, and in the United States. Table 3b shows by number and per cent the country of birth of the parents of native born children of foreign parentage in Gary, in Indiana, and in the United States. From these tables it will be seen that the foreign born population of Gary is abnormal with respect to Indiana and the United States in its high proportion of persons born in the countries of the New Immigration, and the low proportion of those born in the countries of the Old Immigration; the native born population of foreign parentage is abnormal in its generally high proportion of persons whose parents were born in the countries of the New Immigration and correspondingly low proportion of those whose parents were born in the countries of the Old Immigration. In 1908 a census was taken by the Gary Land Company of the total population of Gary by nationality. The result of this census,

¹⁵U.S Census, 1910, Vol. I, p. 1033; Vol. II, pp. 568-548.

# 3. PROPORTIONS BY COUNTRY OF BIRTH IN GARY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1910

	a. Foreign Born ¹⁶				b. Parents of Native Born Children of Foreign Parentage ¹⁷			
	Gary		diana Per cent	tes cent	Gary		diana Per cent	nited States Per cent
	Num- ber	Per	Indiana Per ee	United States Per ce	Num- ber	Per	Indiana Per c	United States Per ce
Austria Canada, French. Canada, other. Denmark. England. France. Germany. Greece. Holland. Hungary. Ireland. Italy. Norway. Russia. Scotland. Sweden. Switzerland. Wales. Other foreign.	30 173 9	27.0 0.1 2.4 0.4 2.1 0.1 6.4 2.6 0.3 24.0 2.4 7.7 0.5 13.2 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0	7.4 0.5 3.1 1.5 39.0 0.9 1.3 9.0 7.1 4.3  6.0 2.2 3.2 3.1 7.1 1.0 5.1	2.8 6.1 1.3 6.5 0.9 18.5 0.7 0.9 3.7 10.1 9.9 3.0 11.9	506 10 44 	17.0 0.4 1.5 3.6 0.3 24.0 0.3 11.1 10.7 3.4 0.8 8.5 1.9 3.6 0.1 1.1	2.4 0.4 0.7 0.3 3.9 1.4 59.9 1.9 1.6 0.9 1.3 2.1 1.3 2.3 1.4 0.6 8.0	$0.0 \\ 0.9 \\ 1.5 \\ 16.6 \\ 5.4 \\ 3.2 \\ 6.8 \\ 1.4 \\ 4.2 \\ 0.7 \\ 0.7$

shown in Table 4, shows the total population of Gary as 10,246, comprising 29 races or nationalities. Less than 50 per cent are of English-speaking nations, Americans and persons from the Old Immigration countries making up 48.1 per cent of the total, those of the countries of the New Immigration 49.2 per cent, the Asiatic Immigration 0.3 per cent, and the Colored 2.4 per cent.

 ¹⁶U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, p. 1033; Vol. II, pp. 568. 548.
 ¹⁷U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, p. 781; Vol. II, pp. 548, 568; U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, p. 877; Vol. II, pp. 548, 568.

## 4. NATIONALITY BY NUMBER AND PER CENT OF THE TOTAL POPULATION IN GARY IN 1908¹⁸

Table 5 shows the proportion of sexes by number and per cent in Gary, in Indiana, and in the United States in 1910 by color. There is a much greater proportion of males in the population of Gary than in either the state of Indiana or the United States, because of the very large proportion of immigrants among whom the proportion of males is always very high. In the negro population the proportion of males is greater than of females but does not show such wide difference as in the white population. Aside from the number of immigrants as an explanation of the greater proportion of males in the Gary population is the fact of the newness of the city. For among the native born Americans

 ^{18&}quot;Satellite Cities", Graham Romeyn Taylor, Survey 29: 196. Table made by Gary Land Company.
 19U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, p. 248; Vol. II, pp. 549-568.

# 5. PROPORTION OF SEXES BY NUMBER AND PER CENT IN GARY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1910 BY COLOR²⁰

	Ga	ry	Indiana Per cent	United States Per cent
	Number	Per Cent		
Male	11,521 5,281 11,263 5,140 242 141	68.6 31.4 69.1 30.9 63.2 36.8	51.2 48.8 51.3 48.7 51.5 48.5	51.5 48.5 51.6 48.4 49.7 50.3

the number of males is proportionally high because many men at work and in business in Gary have not yet established themselves and sent for their families.

The United States Census for 1910 gives figures for three age groups, 6 to 14 years (the compulsory school age in Indiana), 6 to 20 years, and males 21 years of age and over in the Gary

# 6a. PROPORTIONS OF AGE GROUP 6 TO 14 YEARS IN GARY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1910²¹

## 6b. PROPORTION OF AGE GROUP 6 to 20 YEARS IN GARY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1910

## 6c. PROPORTION OF MALES 21 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER IN GARY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES, IN 1910

Total number males 21 years of age and over in Gary Total number males 21 years of age and over in Indiana	51.5 per cent 30.5 per cent
Total number males 21 years of age and over in United	
States	29.4 per cent
	_

²⁰U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, p. 248; Vol. II, pp. 549–568. ²¹U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, pp. 298, 1033; Vol. II, pp. 568, 542.

population. Tables 6a, 6b, and 6c show these figures compared with corresponding figures for Indiana and the United States, except that in Table 6a the age group for Indiana and the United States is 5 to 14 years instead of 6 to 14. In comparison with figures for Indiana and the United States the Gary population shows an abnormally low proportion of persons 6 to 14 years of age, and 6 to 20 years of age, but an unduly large proportion of males 21 years of age and over; facts due both to the large number of immigrants, among whom the proportion of very young persons is normally low and the proportion of males above the age of 16 is normally high, and also to the newness of the city, a condition which would normally attract an unusually large number of men in the most productive years of life.

Tables 7a and 7b show the proportions in the age groups 6 to 14 years, and males 21 years of age and over according to color and nativity in Gary, in Indiana, and in the United States.

7a. PROPORTIONS OF AGE GROUP 6 TO 14 YEARS BY COLOR AND NATIVITY IN GARY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1910²²

`	Gary Per Cent	Indiana Per Cent	United States Per Cent
Native born white of native parentage.  Native b r white of foreign or mixed parentage.  Foreign born white.  Negro. Other.	$\begin{array}{c} 45.0 \\ 1 \dots 2 \end{array}$	86.6 10.2 1.0 1.9 0.3	59.3 24.1 3.5 12.7 0.4

7b. PROPORTION OF MALES 21 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER BY COLOR AND NATIVITY IN GARY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES

	Gary Per Cent	Indi na Per Cent	United S a es Per Cent
Native born of native parentage.  Native born of foreign or mixed parentage.  Foreign born white.  Negro. Other.	$\frac{9.4}{65.7}$	72.5 14.2 10.8 2.5	49.6 17.4 22.6 9.5 0.9

²²U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, pp. 298, 1033; Vol. II, pp. 542, 544, 568.

In relation to Indiana and the United States, Gary shows in the age group 6 to 14 years of age a much smaller proportion of native born white of native parentage, a larger proportion of native born white of foreign or mixed parentage, a very much larger proportion of foreign born white, and about the same proportion of negroes. In the same fashion in the group, males 21 years of age and over, the Gary population shows an abnormally low proportion of native white of native parentage, a low proportion of native born white of foreign or mixed parentage, a higher proportion of foreign born whites, and a smaller proportion of negroes. These facts bear out the conclusions above as to the effect of large numbers of immigrants and the newness of the city on the proportions of age groups.

Table 8 shows the proportion of those attending school in Gary, in Indiana, in the United States in 1910 in the age groups a, 6 to 14, and b, 6 to 20 years. In the age group 6 to 14 years

## 8a. SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN THE AGE GROUP 6 TO 14 YEARS IN GARY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1910²³

# 8b. SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN THE GROUP 6 TO 20 YEARS OF AGE IN GARY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1910

Gary. Indiana. United States.	66.0 per cent
	1

Gary shows a little higher proportion of school attendance than the United States, and somewhat lower than Indiana. Since this age group is that affected by the attendance law in Indiana, the figures here are of little significance in indicating the attitude of the Gary population toward school attendance. It is in the age group 14 and 16 up to 20 in which children are not required by the Indiana law to go to school that significant results may be found. Here it will be seen that a much lower proportion attend school in Gary than in either Indiana or the United States because of the number of immigrant children of the common laboring

²³U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, p. 1098; Vol. II, pp. 542, 568.

classes, where children go to work at a very early age, and also to the industrial character of the community which furnishes work for them.

Table 9 shows the proportion of foreign born male persons 21 years of age and over in Gary, in Indiana, and in the United

# 9. PROPORTION OF FOREIGN BORN MALES 21 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER IN GARY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1910 ACCORDING TO CITIZENSHIP²⁴

	Gary Per Cent	Indiana Per Cent	United States Per Cent
Naturalized	17.8	47.8	45.6
First papers	24.8	15.0	8.6
Alien	, 53.8	20.6	34.1
Unknown	3.6	16.6	11.7

States in 1910 who were naturalized, who had taken out first papers, were alien, or unknown. In relation to Indiana and the United States, Gary shows a smaller proportion of naturalized foreign born, a larger proportion of those having taken out first papers, but a larger number of aliens. This difference is largely due to the greater proportion of immigrants of those nationalities coming most recently to the United States among which the proportion of aliens is always large, partly because many have not been in this country long enough to become citizens, and without doubt partly because there is a large number of the "construction gang" type of immigrant, who moves about frequently from place to place.

Table 10 shows the proportions of illiterates in Gary, in Indiana, and in the United States in 1910: 10a, all persons 10

10a. PROPORTION OF ILLITERATES 10 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, AND MALES 21 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER IN GARY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1910²⁵

	Gary Per Cent	Indiana Per Cent	United States Per Cent
10 years of age and over	9.26	3.1	7.7
	11.4	4.1	8.4

 ²⁴U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, p. 1067; Vol. II, pp. 549, 568.
 ²⁵U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, pp. 1186, 1257; Vol. II, pp. 568, 549.

10b. PROPORTION OF ILLITERATES 10 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER IN GARY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1910 BY NATIVITY AND COLOR

	Gary Per Cent	Indiana Per Cent	United States Per Cent
Native white	97.1	61.8 27.4 10.5	27.8 29.9 40.4

years of age and over, and males 21 years of age and over; 10b all persons 10 years of age and over according to nativity and color. In relation to Indiana and the United States, Gary has an undue proportion of illiterates especially in the group males 21 years of age and over which would indicate that the high proportion of illiteracy may be due to the presence of the number of immigrants who have come to this country over the school age. This conclusion is borne out by Table 10b which shows a very low proportion of illiterates among the native born whites, a very high proportion of illiterates among the foreign born whites, and a low proportion of illiterates among negroes 10 years of age and over in relation to Indiana and the United States.

In the United States Census of 1910 a dwelling-house is defined as a place in which one or more persons regularly sleep—not necessarily a house; but a boat, a tent, a freight car, or a room in a warehouse the occupied by only one person.²⁶ On the other hand, an entire apartment house, the containing many families, is considered as one dwelling. The same census defines a family as a household or group of persons, whether related by blood or not, who live together as one household, usually sharing the same table. One person living alone is counted as one family, while on the other hand the occupants of a hotel or institution, however numerous, are also treated as forming one family. Unsatisfactory as these two definitions are to one interested in housing and family conditions, they do have the value of uniformity and so serve as a basis of comparison. Table 11 shows the number of dwellings and families in Gary, in Indiana, and in the United States in 1910, and the average number of families to a dwelling. the average number of persons to a dwelling, and the average number of persons to a family. The proportion of families to

²⁶U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, p. 1285.

11. NUMBER OF DWELLINGS AND FAMILIES IN GARY, IN INDIANA, AND IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1910 ACCORDING TO FAMILIES AND PERSONS²⁷

	Dwellings	Families	Families per Dwelling	Persons per Dwelling	Persons per Family
Gary	631,554	654,891	1.3 1.0 1.1	7.5 4.3 5.2	5.8 4.1 4.5

a dwelling is somewhat higher in Gary than in Indiana or in the United States. Were the definition of family based on blood kinship the proportion of families to a dwelling in Gary would undoubtedly be much higher because of the great number of immigrants who, unrelated by blood, form the kind of household described in the census as "sharing one table". Gary shows a considerably higher proportion of persons to a dwelling than does Indiana or the United States, because of the greater proportion of immigrants who often live crowded together in tenement houses and shacks. The number of persons to a family is also somewhat greater in Gary than in Indiana or in the United States. This does not mean, however, that in Gary the family group determined by ties of blood averages 5.8 persons as given in the table, because as referred to above the census defines a family as "a single household or group of persons usually sharing the same table", and this would leave out of account children who do not live at home, which in the Gary population would probably not affect the results much; and also unrelated boarders in immigrant households, as well as those unrelated groups of immigrant men living together, keeping house on a sort of community plan, sharing the same table, which facts would very much affect results in the Gary population.

These statistics show that the population of Gary differs from that of Indiana and of the United States in rate of growth, color and nativity composition, sex and age composition, school attendance of those over 14 and 16 years of age, citizenship of its foreign born, illiteracy, and number of persons to a dwelling. Quite as significant, however, in differentiating the population of Gary as a population with properties peculiar to itself are certain

²⁷U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, p. 1285; Vol. II, pp. 549, 569.

fundamental facts which cannot be measured statistically, but which must be considered in a purely descriptive fashion as in this introductory survey of Gary and its population. Such facts are, for example, the pioneer spirit of the people, the great numbers of men without their families, unusual ties of friendship among the immigrants often taking the place of ties of blood, etc.: facts which immeasurably influence the reactions of this population to conditions of American life.

## II. Juvenile Delinquency and Adult Crime

## STATEMENT OF THE QUESTION

It has long been the popular belief, supported until very recently by the weight of scientific opinion, that the immigrants in the United States furnish proportions to juvenile delinquency and adult crime far in excess of their proportion in the general In proof of this view United States census figures from 1850 to 1890 are cited, figures showing that, in every decade, while in the general population the number of native born whites is far in excess of the foreign born, in the juvenile delinquent and adult criminal population the number of the foreign born is far in excess of the native born whites.1

In the special Report of the United States Census on Prisoners and Juvenile Delinquents in 1904, John Koren subjects these figures for the United States to a more searching analysis.² He shows that conclusions unfavorable to the foreign born, drawn from comparisons of the relative proportions of native born whites and foreign born whites in the criminal population, as given in previous United States census reports, are unfair to the foreign born because the age bases of the comparison are unequal. For the prison population of both native and foreign born is chiefly of persons over 15 years of age, while the general population of native born whites includes all ages, and of the foreign born whites chiefly persons 15 to 40 years of age. Comparing the native born whites and the foreign born on the same age basis he finds that the figures are not so unfavorable to the foreign born as formerly believed. In adult crime, in major offenses the native born whites contribute a higher relative proportion than the foreign born, but in minor offenses the foreign born contribute a higher relative proportion than the native born. Koren suggests that the explanation for this preponderance of the foreign born in minor offenses may lie in the fact that the foreign born are more highly concentrated in urban communities where minor offenses are more severely punished.3 In juvenile delinquency. also, children of foreign parentage show higher proportional

¹Drähms, p. 170; U.S. Census, 1890, Table 4, p. 126 (Vol. on Penal and Benevolen Institutions).

²Lydston, p. 133; Koren, pp. 18, 19, 41, 40, 28; Commons, p. 168.

³Koren, pp. 41, 29.

numbers than those of native born white parentage.4 It is also true that in juvenile delinquency and in both major and minor offenses in adult crime⁵ the colored show higher proportional numbers than the native born whites.6

That is, when the foreign born, the colored, and the native born whites are reduced to the same age basis, their comparison still shows that in juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime the foreign born and the colored show higher proportions relative to their representation in the general population than the native born; that in major offenses the native born whites show higher relative proportions than the foreign born, and the colored higher relative proportions than the native born whites.

Koren's suggested specific explanation of this unfavorable showing of the immigrants in juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime—namely, the concentration of the foreign born in urban communities where minor offenses are more severely punished—is but a part of a more general and more complex The fact that the immigrant and the colored conexplanation. tribute an undue proportion to juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime is not only true for the United States as a whole. including both urban and rural communities, but will also be found to hold true in the limits of a single urban community where immigrants, colored, and native born live side by side. The relation of these groups to juvenile delinquency and adult crime may still be said to be determined by "concentration in an urban community". But this determinant must be expanded into its two important facts: the degree of concentration of each race or nationality group, and the part of the community in which each group is concentrated: two specific facts whose explanation lies back in a more general fact—that of the social and economic class to which each group belongs. For in general a high degree of concentration in the poorer districts of urban communities is an association of the low social and economic classes, while a relatively low degree of concentration in the better districts of urban communities is an association of the higher social and economic classes.

Altho certain individuals of the New Immigration and of the Colored are engaged in business or the professions, and altho-

⁴Koren, pp. 17–28; Bryce, Vol. II, p. 478; Commons, p. 170. ⁵Koren, pp. 232–237, 17–28. ⁶Bryce, Vol. II, pp. 476, 478, 557; Lydston, p. 119; Jenks and Lauch, p. 51; Haskins, pp. 147, 150; Breckenridge and Abbott, chap ii, especially pp. 57–59; Symposium: Physical Bases of Crime, 58.

certain individuals of the New Immigration in a few years after coming to the United States rise to the business and professional classes, the great majority belong to the industrial classes; and of these the greatest number are found on the lower levels of the industrial scale. That is, by far the greatest number of the New Immigrants belong to the economic and social class of the unskilled laborer, and the Colored belong to an economic and social class determined by color as well as by low industrial status. 8

While children who do wrong are found in every economic and social class, it is only in the lower economic and social classes that they come to the attention of officers and courts to any great extent. And while adult criminals are to be found in every economic and social class, it is chiefly from the lowest economic and social classes that petty adult offenders are recruited. This is true not only because need is a direct cause of certain kinds of offenses (theft for example) but chiefly because of the unfavorable social conditions in which those low in the economic and social scale live.

Since these lower economic and social classes are made up chiefly of the New Immigrants and the Colored, it is chiefly among these race or nationality groups that the greatest amount of juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime must be expected.

Then if, because of the difference in bases of comparison, it is unfair in crime to compare the immigrant population including chiefly only *certain* age classes with the native born white population including *all* age classes, for the same reason it is obviously unfair to compare the immigrant population and the colored population which include chiefly only the *lower* social and economic classes with the native born white population which includes *all* social and economic classes.¹⁰

Out of these considerations, then, is evolved the general thesis of this study: that the unfavorable relation of the races or nationalities of the New Immigration, and to a certain extent the unfavorable relation.

⁷Richmond Mayo-Smith, pp. 150–151.

⁸Jenks and Lauch, pp. 1, 2, 31, 140; Commons, p. 108; Report of Commissioner-General of Immigration, 1906, Table VIII, p. 28; Bryce, Vol. II, pp. 300, 476, 482, 489, 514, 519, 557, 791; Steiner (On the Trail of the Immigrant), p. 24; Report of Immigration Commission, pp. 4, 8, 9, 37, 39, 540, 589, 493, Table on Occupations by Races.

Races.

Breckenridge and Abbott, p. 70; Report of Board of Trade (6920H3), pp. xv, xvii, xxi, xxiii, xlviii; Booth (Social Classes), p. 8; Ward, Publications of the American Sociological Society, pp. 9–11 (6739As2); Travis, pp. 33–34; "Standard of Living," Streightoff, American Sociological Society, p. 63 (6739As3); Streightoff, p. 3; Morrison (Juvenile Offenders), pp. 154–159, 162, 168, 169, 170; Lombroso (Crime, Its Causes and Remedies), pp. 135, 137; Drähms, pp. 119, 177, 178, 179, 286; Bryce, Vol. II, pp. 557, 476, 478; Richmond Mayo-Smith, p. 151, Aschaeffenburg, pp. 51–168; Aschaeffenburg, pp. 106; Steiner (On the Trail of the Immigrant), pp. 273–297.

orable relation of the Colored race, to juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime is determined not by the race or nationality group but by the social and economic class to which these races or nationalities belong.

### 2. Definitions

Juvenile delinquency as a pathological social phenomenon must be defined from both the legal and social viewpoint. Legally any child under a certain age, usually 16, who has violated any law of the state or any ordinance of the city or village in which he lives is a juvenile delinquent. Socially, any child who offends against the complex social conditions in which he lives, such conditions usually defined in law, is a juvenile delinquent.¹¹

In juvenile delinquency the chief interest is shifted from the consideration of the act of delinquency and from the delinquent himself as a detached individual, to the consideration of the relation of the individual to his social environment. The delinquent child is brought into court and his case is heard and disposition made, not on the basis of the act committed, but on the consideration of the circumstances surrounding the commission of the act, the probability of its repetition, the possibility of altering the unfavorable conditions sucrounding the child, or the necessity of removing the child from such conditions. 12 That is, in juvenile delinquency the offense is not the prime fact in the delinqueacy. Nor is the character of the child in itself the significant fact. Mangold says that character and conscience are developmental, and that childhood is the period of formation and fixation of character. Few children coming before the courts have traits of character so formed and fixed that they cannot be changed. Travis shows that for the United States at least from 2 per cent to 10 per cent only of the children coming to the court can be considered as criminal by nature.

The child is essentially unsocial, and childhood is the period of adjustment to the social order. The child's acts of delinquency then can be said to come from "legitimate desires illegitimately gratified", 13 and not in the majority of cases from any motives in themselves base. That is, as Judge Lindsay says, the child is not immoral but may be unmoral.

¹¹Mangold, p. 221; Richard A. Bolt. ¹²Breckenridge and Abbott, p. 43; Roger N. Baldwin; Mangold, p. 223; Travis, xxvi. ¹³Russell and Rigby (quoting Elmira Year-book, 1892); Introduction to Travis; Mangold, p. 223.

The determination of juvenile delinquency depends then upon the circumstances surrounding the act defined by a law which, aside from actual law breaking, covers almost every species of conduct which is *likely to result* in law breaking and criminality,¹⁴ a law which is therefore capable of exercising preventive control over the child.

From the very nature of the problem any examination into juvenile delinquency must include a study of the individual delinquent and of the circumstances surrounding the acts of delinquency for which under the law the child is brought to the attention of the court.

Crime may be defined as a violation of the laws of the state carrying legal penalties. Wrongs are divided into three classes: sins, offenses against God who infliets the punishment himself; vices, offenses against natural law having its own penalties; and crimes, offenses against statutory law carrying legal penalties. Clearly the only kind of wrongs that can be measured at present are those against statutory law. Those against moral and physical law can be known only as manifest in violations of statutory law. The use of the word "crime" in this study refers to those wrongs which the law so regards and punishes. 15

A study of crime necessarily involves two points of view: that of the act committed and that of the agent committing the act. In the same study the crime and the criminal may both be considered without any real inconsistency provided the distinction between these two points of view is kept in mind. 16 While formerly attention of society was concentrated on the crime with little regard to the agent committing it,17 the classical school of criminologists succeeded in turning attention to the study of the criminal as the agent of the act of crime. Altho at the present day the point has not quite been reached in adult crime as in juvenile delinquency, where the theory of the law declares that a criminal shall be tried and a course of treatment prescribed based entirely on the relation of the individual criminal to the particular environment in which he happens to be placed, still the law does recognize degrees of difference in individual criminals, and degrees of difference in various environments. A study of crime in a community then must include a study of

 ¹⁴Breckenridge and Abbott, p. 43; Mangold, p. 222; Baldwin, p. 12.
 ¹⁵Boies, pp. 30, 31, 38; Wines, pp. 11, 13, 229, 249; Drähms, p. 5; Robinson, p. 3.
 ¹⁶Robinson, p. 4; Boies, p. 35; Wines, p. 6.
 ¹⁷Ferrero, p. 3.

the individual criminals of that community, and the special environment in which the individual is placed.

At present there can be no accurate measure of juvenile delinquency or adult crime in any community. In juvenile delinquency neither the number of cases brought to the court. nor the numbers committed to institutions, nor the number of delinquents known and recognized can be taken as an accurate measure, for many escape detection altogether and many are properly dealt with at home or in school who would otherwise come to the attention of the courts. The amount of adult crime in a community cannot be measured by the number of criminals confined in institutions, because this number leaves out of account those who have been judged guilty of crime but who have escaped the penalty of imprisonment by the payment of a fine, by a suspended sentence, or some other form of leniency. Neither can the number of criminals brought into the courts indicate the amount of crime, for it is a well known fact that in every community much crime exists without detection. 18 Farrer estimates that 77 per cent of the crimes committed are committed with impunity.19

Not only is it impossible to determine the exact amount of juvenile delinquency and of adult crime in any community at any given time, but what constitutes juvenile delinquency and adult crime differs in different communities,²⁰ and in the same community from time to time because of differences in laws, differences in vigilance in enforcing laws, and differences in practices of different courts; especially is this last true of juvenile delinquency where there are such wide variations in the methods of the courts.

These facts make comparisons of juvenile delinquency and adult crime in different places very difficult and profitable only when general principles and not actual figures are compared.

## 3. Description of Groups Selected for Study

Materials for this study of juvenile delinquency and adult crime in the population of Gary were secured from four sources in order to cover the field of offenses committed by juvenile delinquents and petty offenses and more serious crimes by adult offenders.

 ¹⁸Koreň, pp. 12, 13.
 ¹⁹Farrer, p. 100; Boies, pp. 9, 8, 51.
 ²⁰Boies, pp. 18-35; Devon, p. 165; Koren, p. 15; Morrison (Juvenile Offenders), pp. 4, 7, 8, 29; Aschaeffenburg, pp. 7, 31.

For the study of juvenile delinquency were selected 102 record sheets, the total number of those cases from Garv which came to the attention of the Lake County Juvenile Court thru its probation officers or otherwise officially from October 1, 1912, when permanent comprehensive history records were first introduced in that court, to June 30, 1914, a period of twenty months. The fact is recognized that the number of cases coming to the court cannot represent the whole number of juvenile delinquents in the population of Gary for the period of time covered, but only the detected cases: also that all the cases do not exhibit the same degree of delinguency. In accordance with the definition of juvenile delinquency used in this study, this group includes those juvenile delinquents who are likely to become law-breakers and criminals as well as habitual wrong-doers, and those whose cases are settled out of court or who are returned to their parents on probation as well as those who are committed to institutions.²¹

For the study of adult crime were selected the official records of cases in three courts in order to cover both petty and more serious offenders. Under the law of the state of Indiana all crimes and offenses punishable by death or imprisonment in the state prison are felonies; all other offenses against the criminal law are misdemeanors.²²

For Section I of the study of adult crime were selected 3,031 arrest sheets of those persons arrested by the police to be brought before the city court from January 1, 1914, to December 31, 1914, inclusive, a period of twelve months. This court has exclusive jurisdiction of all violations of the ordinances of the city, and original concurrent jurisdiction with the circuit court or criminal court in all cases of petit larcency and all other violations of the laws of the state where the penalty provided therefor cannot exceed a fine of \$500 and imprisonment in the county jail or workhouse not exceeding 6 months or either or both. Only misdemeanors and very minor felonies therefore can be disposed of in the city court.²³

Of the 3,512 cases arrested to be brought into this court 481 were at once discarded as not properly belonging to a study of crime: 348 suspects, 54 witnesses, and 33 cases in which guilt was not proved—cases obviously not delinquents; 19 demented cases, which belong to a study of insanity; 2 drug and delirium

²¹For groups selected for study see Baldwin. ²²Burns, Annotated Indiana Statutes, Revision of 1914, Sec. 1866, Chap. 4, Art. 1. ²³Burns Annotated Indiana Statutes, Revision of 1914, Sec. 8843.

tremens cases, which belong to a study of disease; and 25 juvenile delinquents, which belong to a study of juvenile delinquency. The number retained includes two kinds of cases: first those whose arrest sheet did not indicate a sentence imposed, including those cases released by the police, nolle prossed by the prosecutor, discharged by the judge, dismissed, pending, continued, bound over to the higher courts, released to other officers, and miscellaneous: and second, those cases whose arrest sheets showed a sentence imposed, either fine or jail sentence, or both. Those cases which are fined or sentenced in the court are established as clearly delinquent cases. The cases marked nolle prossed by the prosecutor, released by the police, discharged by the court, and dismissed are included in the study, unless the cases are marked "not guilty", for the reason that in many cases where the prisoner is guilty of petty offenses, certain circumstances influence officers and court to nolle prosse, release, discharge, or dismiss the case: such circumstances as humanitarian reasons on the part of officers and court (for instance sympathy for the large needy family of the prisoner, or some obvious injustice), slight or confused evidence, lack of seriousness of certain offenses (gambling for example), the lack of a uniform, intelligent policy of treatment of certain offenses by the state in general (drunkness for example), an honest difference of opinion concerning the method of dealing with certain offenses (prostitution for example), and in the case of females a special leniency of the court. Because of these reasons, unless so specified in the arrest sheet, the real guilt of the prisoner cannot be determined. Another class of cases also included in this study is the class in which no immediate ultimate disposition is indicated on the arrest sheet: those pending, continued, bound over to higher courts, released to other officers, and those falling under the head of miscellaneous dispositions. No specific indication of guilt or innocence is contained in the arrest sheets for these cases.

For Section II of adult crime were selected records, filed in the office of the state statistician, of 965 cases from Gary coming into the courts of the justices of the peace from January 1, 1910, to December 31, 1913, a period of four years. Justices of the peace in Indiana have, as conferred by statute, exclusive original jurisdiction in their counties in all cases where the fine assessed cannot exceed \$3, and have concurrent jurisdiction with the criminal court and circuit court to try and determine all cases of misdemeanor punishable by fine only, and in trials before justices

fines to the extent of \$25 with costs may be assessed; and they have jurisdiction to make examination in all cases but no power to adjudge imprisonment as a part of their sentence except in lieu of payment of fines assessed.²⁴ Only misdemeanors, therefore. can be disposed of in the courts of the justices of the peace.

For Sections III and IV of adult crime were selected official records in the Lake county jails of 123 cases from Gary convicted of felonies in the Lake County Circuit and Superior Courts and the city court of Gary, and sentenced to the various penal institutions in the state, from January 1, 1910, to December 31, 1915, a period of six years. The circuit and superior courts have original exclusive jurisdiction as prescribed by law in criminal cases, except where exclusive or concurrent jurisdiction is conferred by law upon justices of the peace.25 The more serious criminal offenses therefore are disposed of in these courts.

Section III consists of 89 cases of more serious felonies in which the sentence is commitment to the Indiana State Prison at Michigan City, the Indiana Reformatory at Jeffersonville, or the Woman's Prison at Indianapolis: and Section IV of 36 lesser felonies in which the sentence is commitment to the Lake County Jail, the Indiana State Penal Farm at Putnamville, or the Correctional Department of the Indiana Woman's Prison at Indianapolis.

The cases of adults coming into the city court and the justice of the peace courts in general represent petty crimes, while the two sections of those coming into the circuit and superior courts represent more serious crimes.

By taking records of petty offenders as they appear in the courts rather than in jails and prisons, opportunity is given for a wider range of study to include those petty offenders who escape with a fine, and those who profit by the leniency of police, prosecutor, and courts.26

In making this study of adult crime the fact is recognized that, as in juvenile delinquency, these cases by no means represent the total amount of crime, but only those cases detected and dealt with by the officers of the law.

 ²⁴Burns, Annotated Indiana Statutes, Revision of 1914, Art. 6, Sec. 1493.
 ²⁵Burns, Annotated Indiana Statutes, Revision of 1914, Sec. 1433.
 ²⁶Koren, pp. 13–30; Healy, p. 40.

### DESCRIPTION OF METHOD USED

Juvenile delinquents and adult offenders are treated in this study according to so-called single race or nationality units. These terms, "race" and "nationality", are used in their locse popular sense.²⁷ For example, they cover such groups as American negroes and Slovaks, neither of which can be spoken of properly as a race or a nation; as well as Japanese and Chinese where the terms may be applied properly. In the absence of a term which accurately describes all the divisions, they have been designated according to the answers given to the question, "To what race do you belong?" or "To what nationality do you belong?"—that is, "I am a Slav", "I am a Jew", etc. Altho this method is in many ways unsatisfactory, country of birth as a determinant of race or nationality is much less satisfactory. This becomes apparent when there is considered, for example, such a country as Austria-Hungary, from which alone come 12 races or nationalities, 7 Slavic and 5 non-Slavic-Bohemians, Ruthenians, Bulgarians, Slovaks, Slovenians, Poles, Servo-Croatians, Germans, Roumanians, Magyars, Albanians, and Italians.²⁸ In some of the materials used information both as to race or nationality and country of birth is available and offers much more satisfactory results.

For purposes of this study, however, race or nationality consciousness is perhaps after all the important factor. In the study of juvenile delinqueacy, race or nationality is determined rather by the parentage of the child than by the child himself, because of the fact that race consciousness is usually present in the second generation in the age covered by juvenile delinquency laws; and in the study of adult offenders race or national ity is determined by the individual himself. A slight inaccuracy results from this method because of differences in race or nationality consciousness in the New Immigration and the Old Immigration. For example, American born children of foreign born parents of the New Immigration often assert that they are Americans and that their parents are "foreigners" in answer to the question of race or nationality; while in the Old Immigration, especially among the Irish and the Germans, the third and fourth generation cling to the country of their ancestors.29

²⁷See discussion of race, ethnic groups, etc., the Races of Man, J. Deniker, chaps.

viii-ix.

²³Emily G. Balch (Our Slavic Fellow Citizens), p. 32.

²³It will be noted that this statement was made in 1916 and not in the light of recent events which have brought out in bold relief this characteristic of these two

Juvenile delinquents and adult offenders are treated in this study not only according to so-called single race or nationality units, but these are in turn arranged in six race or nationality groups: Americans, Colored, Old Immigration, New Immigration, Asiatic Immigration, and Other Americans. In the American group are considered cases of native born whites of native born parents; in the Colored group, American negroes of whatever degree of purity; in the Old Immigration group, immigrants of the second generation from those countries of northwestern Europe which furnished the chief immigrant streams to this country prior to 1882;30 in the New Immigration group, peoples from the countries of southern and eastern Europe which have furnished the greatest number of immigrants to this country since 1882; in the Asiatic Immigration group, peoples coming from the countries of Asia; and in the Other American group, American Indians, peoples from countries of North America other than the United States, and peoples from the West Indies. It will be noted from this grouping that the Americans as here used correspond in general to the group of native born whites of native parentage as used in the United States census reports. the Colored with the negroes, the Old Immigration very roughly with the native born whites of foreign or mixed parentage, and the New Immigration very roughly with the foreign born whites. The Asiatic Immigration and Other Americans include such small numbers that they are not of much consideration.

In all, 47 single racial or national units are represented in the study. In the study of juvenile delinquency, 12 single races or nationalities are represented: Americans; Colored; two races or nationalities of the Old Immigration—German and Irish; and eight races of the new Immigration—Croatians, Hungarians, Italians, Lithuanians, Poles, Russians, Servians, and Slavs. No races or nationalities of the Asiatic Immigration or Other Americans are represented among the juvenile delinquents. In Section I of the study of adult crime 47 single racial or national units are represented: Americans; Colored; fourteen races or nationalities of the Old Immigration—Belgians, Danes, English, French, German, Hollanders, Irish, Norwegians, Scotch, Scotch-Irish, Spaniards, Swedes, Swiss, and Welsh; twenty races or nationalities of the New Immigration—Albanians, Austrians, Bohemians, Bulgarians, Croatians, Finns, Greeks, Horoats, Hun-

³⁰Jenks and Lauch; Haskins; U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, p. 781; Immigration Commission, Abstract of Reports, Vol. I, 1910-11, pp. 13-27.

garians, Italians, Jews, Lithuanians, Macedonians, Poles, Roumanians, Russians, Ruthenians, Servians, Slavs, and Slovaks: seven races or nationalities of the Asiatic Immigration—Arabians, Armenians, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Persian, and Syrian: four races or nationalities of Other Americans—Canadians, Cubans, Indians, and Mexicans. In Section II of the study of adult crime, material could be obtained only for nativity and color, and in nativity only foreign born and native born are designated. In Sections III and IV of the study of adult crime 20 single race or nationality groups are represented: Americans: Colored: four races or nationalities of the Old Immigration— Danes, French, German, and Swedes: 10 races or nationalities of the New Immigration—Austrians, Bohemians, Croatians, Greeks, Hungarians, Italians, Poles, Roumanians, Russians, and Slavs: 2 races or nationalities of the Asiatic Immigration— Arabians and Persians: 2 races or nationalities of Other Americans —Canadians and Indians. These racial or national terms used here are the same as those used in the Dictionary of Races compiled by the Immigration Commission, with a few exceptions.³¹ Those given as Hollanders in this study are there given as Dutch. Albanians are there included with the Greeks. Horoats are there given as Hervats, Canadians are there included under French Canadians and English.

In considering juvenile delinquency and adult crime the important fact for society is the determination of causes lying back in the circumstances surrounding the commission of the act of delinquency or crime. In delinquency and crime, however, as is true in general in all human phenomena, there is a multiplicity of causes, some direct, some indirect, some near, some remote, and all confused in such a way that it is impossible to assign to any one factor a definite value. Because of this complexity of causes it is thought best to follow the phraseology of a study of Donna Fay Thompson, 'The Associations of Dependence in 700 Families', Indiana University, 1914, and discuss the circumstances surrounding the acts of delinquency and crime under the term "associations", rather than causes.

The discussion of these associations is necessarily limited because of the kind and amount of material available. For

³¹Immigration Commission, Abstract of Reports, 1910-11, Vol. I, p. 217. ³²Rhoades.

³³Knoades. ³³Lombroso (Crime, Its Causes and Remedies), p. 1; Devon, pp. 18–21; Wines, p. 279; Morrison (Juvenile Offenders), p. 22: Healy, pp. 23, 24, 164, 165. ³⁴Morrison (Juvenile Offenders), p. 1.

juvenile delinquency the record sheets indicate name of child, address, date, complaint, names, ages, and occupation of father. mother, and children, civil condition, race or nationality of father and mother, church of father and mother, income, rent, size of house, length of residence in Gary, and previous residence. In Section I of the study of adult crime the arrest sheets kept on file in the police station at Gary show name of offender, the arresting officer, the charge, place of arrest, residence of offender. birthplace, descent, occupation, civil condition, sex, race, complexion, age, hair, color, moustache, eve color, weight, height. ability to read or write, articles found on prisoner when searched by officers as money, keys, knife, watch and chain, pocketbook. memorandum book, weapons, letters, grips, and miscellaneous articles, with a note as to whom the property was turned over and by what officer, together with receipt of person to whom the property was turned over, and the disposition of the case giving the signature of the person making the report. In Section II of the study of adult crime the records filed in the office of the statistician of the state of Indiana in the statehouse at Indianapolis show the numbers arrested and brought into the court. kind of offense, color, sex, nativity (whether native born or foreign born), and disposition of cases by kind of offense. In Sections III and IV of the study of adult crime the records of the Lake county jails at Crown Point and at Hammond show race or nationality, age, charge, and disposition of the case.

Following in general the classification of Morrison and Wines, 35 associations of juvenile delinquency and adult crime are considered in this study under four main divisions: general considerations, individual considerations, cosmic considerations, and social considerations. In juvenile delinquency under general considerations are discussed proportions by race or nationality, kinds of offenses, disposition of cases, and repetition of offense; 36 under individual considerations, age, sex, and abnormality; under cosmic considerations, seasonal delinquency; 37 under social considerations, maladjustment, association in delinquency, geographical distribution, church affiliation, home conditions, and industrial status. In Section I of the study of adult crime, under general considerations are discussed proportions by race or nationality, kinds of offenses, and disposition of cases; under individual

^{**}Morrison (Juvenile Offenders), p. 21; Wines, p. 277; Aschaeffenburg, xxv, table; Healy, p. 285; Ferri, p. 53; Boies, pp. 27-39.

**Travis, p. 102; Bache; Barne; McOrrison (1897); Bolt.

**My forrison (Juvenile Offenders), pp. 23, 26, 35, 36.

considerations, age, sex, civil conditions, illiteracy, height and weight; under cosmic considerations, seasonal crime; and under social considerations, birthplace, association in crime, geographical distribution, and industrial status. In Sections II, III, and IV the material is so limited that no arrangement is attempted.

In the study of juvenile delinquency certain considerations are worked out on the basis of case and some of family.³⁸ Case is here used to refer to the individual delinquent no matter how many times he has appeared in court or how many affidavits are filed against him for separate offenses. He remains still one case. In individual considerations, such as age for example, the case is the logical unit, while in certain social considerations, as home conditions for example, the family is the logical unit. In the study of adult crime, however, where the act committed still remains the focus of attention of society, each crime committed is taken as the basis of a case.

Because of the unique character of the city of Gary and its population, because of the short period of time covered by the study, and the comparatively small number of cases, much of the information in this study must stand simply as materials.

³⁸Baldwin.

# III. Certain Associations of Juvenile Delinquency

#### A. General Considerations

### 1. Proportion by Race or Nationality¹

As already stated, 12 single race or nationality units are represented in this study of juvenile delinquency covering 102 cases and representing 86 families.² Of this number, of the race or nationality units, the Americans show the highest absolute proportions followed in order by the Poles and the Slavs. The Servians show the smallest absolute proportions followed in order by the Russians and Irish. Of the groups, the New Immigration shows the highest absolute proportions followed in order by the Americans, the Colored, and the Old Immigration.

In order, however, to determine the true relation of any one race or nationality to juvenile delinquency, the proportion which that race or nationality furnishes to the total number of juvenile delinquents must be compared with the proportion which that race or nationality furnishes to the general population.

Figures at hand indicate that in general the Americans bear about their proportional share, the Old Immigration less, and the Colored and New Immigration more than their proportional share in juvenile delinquency in Gary.

### 2. Kinds of Offenses³

In juvenile delinquency the kind of offense with which the child is charged in the affidavit does not lead to such definite conclusions as in adult crime, for several reasons: first, the shifting of the emphasis in juvenile courts from the delinquent act in itself and the delinquent child in himself to the relation of the child to his environment, whereby the offense charged is no true measure of delinquency; and second, in most cases the offense is really a very complex matter, consisting of not one offense alone, but of several related offenses any one of which is sufficient to bring the child to the attention of the court. The

Original tables, pp. 1–4. See Preface to this study. See also Appendix, Table I. See p. 42 of this study. See Preface to this study. See also Appendix, Table II.

offense charged in the affidavit is perhaps the one of which the child is found guilty, the one chosen as being the most fundamental, the most obvious, etc. For example, a child brought into court on a charge of confirmed truancy might just as well have been brought in for theft or incorrigibility, of both of which offenses he is guilty, truancy having been selected as being sufficient to bring the child into court where a course of treatment may be worked out.

In this study the classification of kinds of offense is that used by Joha Koren in the special report of the United States Census of Prisoners and Juvenile Delinquents in the United States in 1904. This classification divides kinds of offenses into three principal groups: offenses against society, offenses against the person, and offenses against property. In this study offenses against society include incorrigibility, confirmed truancy, and a group of offenses against morals including vicious gangs, immoral girls, obscene language, and indecent conduct; offenses against the person include rape and assault; offenses against property include railway trespass, petit larceny, breaking in and destroying school property; other offenses include the breaking of city ordinances.

Of the groups represented the Americans furnish more than their proportional share of offenses against morals and incorrigibility, less than their share of truancy, and no petit larcency; the Colored show no incorrigibility or truancy cases, but furnish more than their share of offenses against morals and petit larcency cases; the Old Immigration furnishes more than its share of incorrigibility and truancy cases, but no offenses against morals or petit larcency cases; and the New Immigration furnishes less than its share of incorrigibility and offenses against morals, but more than its share of truancy cases, and much more than its share of petit larceny cases.

This study of juvenile delinquency in Gary shows no specific kind⁴ of offense unusual in juvenile delinquency. In juvenile delinquency, offenses against society and against property form the greatest proportion, while offenses against the person play a very small part. In Gary incorrigibility, truancy, offenses against morals, and petit larceny rank highest in proportional numbers.⁵ That is, the kinds of offenses committed by juvenile delinquents in Gary are those most typically juvenile.

⁴Richard A. Bolt, p. 46; George Asbury Stephens, p. 33; Mabel Carter Rhoades; Breckenridge and Abbott, pp. 28–30; Mangold, p. 233; Barnett (Appendix); Koren, p. 233.

⁶George B. Mangold, p. 232

This study does not show the more serious offenses usually shown in studies of this kind elsewhere. This may be due in part to the fact that the number of cases in this study is small, in part to differences in phraseology in different juvenile courts, in part to the fact that in many places juvenile delinquents are dealt with by courts other than juvenile courts where charges of a more serious nature are named, and in part to the fact that this study includes all cases brought to the attention of the court while most studies of the kind include only those cases committed to institutions or placed on probation.

Because of these differences also, exact comparisons of specific kinds of offenses are somewhat difficult. Comparing the per cent of cases furnished to specific kinds of offense in Gary, in the whole of the United States, in Detroit, in Chicago (two studies), in Syracuse, N.Y., in New York City, and in England, considerable variations are noticeable. In comparison with these places Gary shows rather a high proportion of offenses against society, due to the high proportion of offenses against morals included in this class of offenses; a somewhat low proportion of offenses against the person; and about the average proportion of offenses against property.

## 3. Disposition of Cases⁶

Disposition of cases in juvenile delinquency is made in Gary in fact and in theory not alone on the basis of the character of the offense committed nor of the character of the child, but on the basis of the relation of the child to his environment. The most serious cases from the point of view of the relation of the child to his environment were committed to institutions, the less serious from this point of view were returned to their homes on probation, and the least serious were dealt with out of court.

The New Immigration shows the highest relative proportion committed to institutions followed in order by the Old Immigration and the Americans; the Americans show the highest relative proportions returned to parents on probation followed in order by the Old Immigration and the New Immigration; the Americans show the highest relative proportion settled out of court, followed in order by the Old Immigration and the New Immigration. The least favorable relations must then exist between the cases of the New Immigration and their environment, and the

Original tables, pp. 9-13. See Preface to this study.

most favorable relations between the American and Old Immigration cases and their environment.

A comparison of the disposition of cases in Gary with that of cases in the states of Massachusetts and Illinois, and the cities of Chicago and Detroit shows no special peculiarity in the disposition of cases in Gary.

## 4. Repetition of Offense⁷

In this study of juvenile delinquency complete records of delinquent children could not be obtained previous to the time of residence of these children in Gary. Since none of these children could have lived in Gary for more than eight years (1906 to 1914) and since most of them have lived there for a much shorter time, the proportion of old offenders given here must be somewhat too low.

Classifying all the cases as to first offenders, old offenders, and offenders with a previous institutional record, the New Immigration shows the highest relative proportion of old offenders followed in order by the Old Immigration and the Americans—the Colored showing no cases of old offenders. The New Immigration alone shows any cases having a previous institutional record. That is, the treatment prescribed for the cases of the New Immigration is much more likely to be unsuccessful than that for the American and Old Immigration cases.

For all cases of all races or nationalities, 18.6 per cent are old offenders, a comparatively low proportion as compared with other communities.

#### B. Individual Considerations

### 5. $Age^9$

In juvenile delinquency there exists a direct relation between both age and amount of delinquency, and age and kind of offense.

In this study of juvenile delinquency in Gary, the Americans show the greatest number of cases 14 years of age; the Colored equal numbers 12 and 15 years of age; all the Old Immigration cases are 10 to 14 years inclusive; and the New Immigration shows the greatest number of cases 9 to 12 years inclusive. That is, the cases of the New Immigration are the youngest of all.

Original tables, pp. 13–15.

*Breckenridge and Abbott.

Original tables, pp. 15–19.

See Preface of this study.

See Preface to this study.

For all cases of all races or nationalities, the greatest number are 9 to 14 years of age, with another smaller but distinctive group 13 to 16 years of age. The general average age for the whole group is 12.2 years. These figures show the juvenile cffenders in Gary younger than in many communities. 10 This difference is partly due to the fact that this study is based on all the cases coming to the attention of the court and its officers. whereas figures for other communities are based on commitments or else on cases actually brought into the court, in both of which cases the age is naturally higher; partly due to the different kinds of courts dealing with children (for example in Detroit, where in 1903 children were brought into the municipal court): and partly to the fact that in some communities (Chicago for example) truants, for whom the age is always low, are not included among juvenile delinquents. This Gary study includes a very large number of the less serious offenses committed especially by younger children who are not capable of committing the more serious offenses.11

The relation between age and kind of offense is even more striking. This study shows that the age of incorrigibility is 10 to 14 years, of confirmed truancy 9 to 13 years, of offenses against morals 14 to 16 years, of offenses against the person the numbers are too few to offer conclusions, of petit larceny the age is 9 to 16 years, and of all offenses against property the age is 9 to 16 years. The youngest cases are found in confirmed truancy followed in order by incorrigibility, petit larceny, and offenses against property, and offenses against morals, with almost no cases at all of juvenile age of offenses against the person. is, the least serious cases are found among the youngest children. 12

The relation between age and kind of offense in juvenile delinquency in Gary is in general the same as is found in other communities.¹³ It will be noted that the New Immigration furnishes the youngest cases and the least serious cases tho the greatest proportion of cases in this study of juvenile delinquency

¹⁰Travis, p. 151; Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen; Richard A. Bolt; Breckenridge an Abbott: Koren, p. 242; Mabel Carter Rhoades.

11W. Douglass Morrison (Juvenile Offenders), p. 57.

12American Journal of Sociology, review of "Criminalit* juv*nile", 9:283; Richard A. Bolt; Mangold, p. 223; Julia Richman, Journal of the Proceedings of the National Education Association, Denver, July, 1909.

13 Koren, p. 245; Julia E. Richman, Journal of the Proceedings of the National Education Association, Denver, July, 1909; Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen; Richard A. Bolt; Morrison (Juvenile Offenders), p. 57; Mangold, p. 224.

## 6. Sex¹⁴

In juvenile delinquency a direct relation exists between sex and amount of delinquency, sex and kind of offense, and sex and age of offenders.

In this study of juvenile delinquency in Gary the Americans show the highest relative proportion of girls followed in order by the Colored and the New Immigration—the Old Immigration showing no cases of girls.

Of the total number of cases of all races or nationalities, 81.4 per cent are boys and 18.6 per cent are girls; that is, there are over four times as many boys as girls. Comparing the proportions of the sexes of juvenile delinquents in Gary, in Detroit (two groups), in New York, in Atlanta, in French institutions, in English reformatories, and in the United States (two groups) there is little variation. The significant fact in all the groups is the great preponderance of cases of boys.

An examination of the relationship between sex and kind of offense in this study shows that of offenses committed by girls by far the greatest proportion, 73.68 per cent, are offenses against morals, while of offenses committed by boys only 8.43 per cent are against morals. This relation between sex and kind of offense in Gary is in general the same as is found in other communities. 15

It will be noted that the Americans furnish the highest proportion of offenses against morals and the highest proportion of girls.

The average age of girls among juvenile delinquents in Gary is 13.8 years and of boys 11.4 years. This higher average age of the girls is to be explained by the fact that most of the offenses committed by girls are offenses against morals the age for which is high, and the lower average age of the boys by the fact that the chief offenses of boys are larceny, truancy, and incorrigibility, for the two latter of which especially the age is low.

Comparing the average ages of girls and boys in groups of delinquents in Gary, in Detroit, and in the United States the figures for Gary show both boys and girls younger than in Detroit and in the United States in accordance with the lower average age of both sexes in Gary as given above. The significant fact is that in all these groups the girls are older than the boys.

 ¹⁴Original tables, pp. 19-23. See Preface to this study.
 ¹⁵George Asbury Stephens; Breckenridge and Abbott, p. 35; Koren, pp. 241,
 242; Mangold, p. 233.

#### 7. Abnormality¹⁶

At the time when the cases covered by this study of juvenile delinquency in Gary came to the attention of the court there were no facilities whatever for adequate physical and mental examinations. At that time there was not even a detention home in connection with the court so that the cases might be kept under observation for a time. Therefore only those subnormal physical and mental conditions readily apparent can be noted here—as "epileptic, crosseyed, and nearsighted" in one case, and "feeble-minded" in another.

An examination of the cases in this study as to the most apparent physical and mental subnormal qualities shows that the Colored and New Immigration furnish by far the highest relative proportions of subnormal cases followed in order by the American and Old Immigration. Of the total number of cases of all races or nationalities, 24.5 per cent, or almost one-fourth, are subnormal physically or mentally or both, a proportion without doubt lower than the actual facts, if complete information were at hand, would justify. This result is consistent with the general belief that there exists a relation between physical and mental weakness and abnormal conduct.¹⁷

#### C. Cosmic Considerations

## 8. Seasonal Delinquency¹⁸

An examination of the cases of juvenile delinquents in this study arranged according to months of the year in which the offenses were committed shows that the greatest number of cases appear in the summer months followed in order by winter, autumu, and spring. This result is consistent with the statement of Mabel Carter Rhoades, that the greatest amount of delinquency occurs in the summer months as this is the season of adventurous wrongdoing.¹⁹

 ¹⁶Original tables, pp. 23–25. See Preface to this study.
 ¹⁷Mangold, p. 230; Cesare Lombroso; Breckenridge and Abbott, p. 147; Travis, xxvi; W. Douglas Morrison (Juvenile Offenders), p. 84; Lilburn Merril, M.D., National Conference of Charities and Corrections, Seattle. 1913; Margaret Otis, Survey 32:488; Bert Hall, Journal of Proceedings of the National Education Association, Denver, July, 1919, p. 217; Julia E. Richman, same, p. 222; Richard A. Bolt.
 ¹⁸Original tables, pp. 25, 26. See Preface to this study.
 ¹⁹Mabel Carter Rhoades.

### D. Social Considerations

9. Maladjustment—Length of Residence in Gary and Residence Previous to Coming to Gary²⁰

Gary was incorporated in 1906 and became a city in 1909, so that length of residence in Gary of any of its population is necessarily limited.

An examination of the length of residence in Gary of the juvenile delinquents in this study shows that the greatest number of these delinquents have come very recently to Gary, especially among the New Immigration. Information is not available as to length of residence in the United States for either the Old or New Immigration.

Information is given, however, as to place of residence just previous to coming to Gary. In the New Immigration where information is given, in only three families did the parents come directly from the old country; two Polish families from Austria, one eight years and one a year and a half before; and one Slavish family from Austria two years before. Among those having lived elsewhere in the United States before coming to Gary, seven states are represented. Many of the families came from nearby industrial communities and cities, a large proportion from Chicago. The rest came principally from industrial communities in the eastern industrial states.

That is, the only kind of community to which most of the New Immigration families have been accustomed in America is the industrial community, in striking contrast to the experience of many of these families in the old country. While many of these families show a breadth of experience in having moved from one industrial community to another since coming to America, this very experience may be immeasurably expensive in its effect on child life because of confused standards of morality. of social customs, legal restrictions, etc.

# 10. Associations in Delinquency—Groups and Gangs and Bad Associates²¹

Many juvenile offenses are the result of association of delinquents in groups and gangs.

An examination of the cases of juvenile delinquents in Gary in this study arranged according to offenses committed by groups

²⁰Original tables, pp. 26–29. See Preface to this study. ²¹Original tables, pp. 29–31. See Preface to this study.

and gangs and those committed by children acting alone shows that the Old Immigration furnishes the smallest relative proportion of cases acting in groups or gangs, followed in order by the American, the Colored, and the New Immigration. In the New Immigration almost as many cases were brought to the attention of the court in which more than one child was associated as were brought in singly. Of the total number of cases of all races or nationalities, one-third are associated in groups or gangs. These groups and gangs are not made up of one race or nationality. but rest on a neighborhood or personal basis of organization, rather than racial or national.22

In some of the cases bad associations aside from groups or gangs is given as a contributing factor in delinquency. One Hungarian child is accustomed to loafing with colored people of a low character: 2 Italian children come from a family with a criminal history in some of its members; one Lithuanian child lives in a very bad neighborhood, one stays in a brother's saloon, ²³ and in the case of 2, the neighbors conspire with the parents to evade the law: one Slavish child lives in a neighborhood of boys and girls who are admitted to have a bad influence over the child. Such associations lead to imitative delinquency. All of the 9 cases given here are in New Immigration families.

## Geographical Distribution²⁴

All of the cases of juvenile delinquents in this study in which information is given are residents of Gary. Residence districts are considered under the headings "North Side", "South Side". "Tolleston", and "Miscellaneous". Some residences are given simply as Gary with no street and number specified and in some cases the residence is not given.

An examination of the families of the juvenile delinquents in this study arranged according to residence districts shows that all of the families of the Old Immigration live on the North Side or in Tolleston; all except two of the American families live on the North Side or in Tolleston; all of the colored families except one live on the South Side: and all of the New Immigration families live on the South Side with the exception of on? Croatin family who live on the North Side, and one Lithuanian and two

²²Rhoades, p. 125; Everson, p. 126; Breckenridge and Abbott, pp. 128, 129; Hall, p. 217.

²³This was prior to national prohibition.

²⁴Original tables, pp. 31–33. See Preface to this study.

²⁵See map, p. 12.

Polish families who live in Tolleston. That is, in general the American and Old Immigration families live on the North Side, the better residence section of Gary; and in general the Colored and New Immigration families live on the South Side, the poorer residence district.

Of the total number of families, almost two-thirds live on the South Side where the children are exposed to the low influence of the saloon,²⁶ the bowling-alleys and poolrooms, bad sanitation, etc., etc. For example, 13.7 per cent of the cases show the bowling-alleys and poolrooms as loafing-places of the children.

## 12. Church Affiliation²⁷

Five church groups are represented among families of juvenile delinquents in Gary: Roman Catholic, Greek Catholic, Russian Orthodox, Greek Orthodox, and Protestant. This church or religious affiliation must be taken as representing church or religious preference rather than active membership, because information obtained is based on answers to questions asked of members of the families and not verified by the pastor or priest of the church indicated. Often the name of the family does not appear on the membership list of the church indicated at all, and the pastor or priest of the church has no knowledge of such a family.

An examination of the families of delinquents in this study according to church preference, where given, shows 38 Roman Catholic families, 6 Greek Catholic, 2 Russian Orthodox, 1 Greek Orthodox, 18 Protestant, and 9 having no church preference. Of the Protestant churches 3 American families are Presbyterians, 3 Methodists, one Christian, and one English Lutheran; one Colored family is Baptist; 3 German families are Lutheran; one Hungarian family is Protestant Hungarian, and one is Lutheran.

Church preference here is based largely on racial or national lines. The large number of Roman Catholics among juvenile delinquents cannot be taken to indicate that there is more delinquency among such families because of their religious preferences. It merely indicates the large number of families of those races or nationalities where the Roman Catholic faith predominates. And so with the number of Protestant families.

²⁶This was before national prohibition. See Preface. ²⁷Original tables, pp. 33–35. See Preface to this study.

It is significant that a relatively large number of families have no church preference. How large a part the failure of all the churches in Gary to rise to their responsibilities to these people has to play in the matter of the juvenile delinquency in the New Immigration cannot be shown here, but it certainly must have a considerable part in a population of this type so lately cut off from all accustomed ties and associations of the old country.

## Home Conditions²⁸

It is not difficult to trace the relationship between juvenile delinquency and certain unfavorable community conditions and practices. It is perhaps following the easy path of least resistance to overemphasize the part played in delinquency by such factors as neighborhood conditions, the failure of the church or the school, the prevalence of moving pictures, dance halls, and poolrooms, or the wide use of automobiles, because of the apparently obvious relationship between such conditions and practices and specific offenses. Then, too, in looking about for factors in juvenile delinquency, community conditions and practices, being of a public or semi-public nature and as such long considered proper subjects for community investigation and improvement, have readily been seized upon from the point of view of their effect on the moral welfare of children.

While unfavorable community conditions and practices are very important immediate factors in juvenile delinquency, home conditions and practices must be considered as fundamental factors which lay the basis for the child's physical, mental, and moral resistance to such unfavorable community conditions. It is much more difficult to measure the influence of home conditions on juvenile delinquency, because these conditions are not so obvious, they are more complex, they are often apparently remote from the specific act of delinquency, and they are not so well understood.

One of the chief difficulties in measuring the influence of home conditions on juvenile delinquency is the fact that there is no generally accepted uniform set of standards for the exercise of the parental function in the home. Breckenridge and Abbott recognize this fact when they describe the juvenile court as a means of standardizing the parental function.²⁹ From John Fiske's definition of the basis of the family—the cooperation of

 $^{^{28} \}rm Original\ tables,\ pp.\ 35-54.$  See Preface to this study.  $^{29} \rm Breckenridge\ and\ Abbott,\ p.\ 13.$ 

both parents for the good of the offspring thru a long period of infancy—may be deduced certain conclusions useful in formulating standards for home care.

For purposes of this study home care affecting juvenile delinquency may be divided into two chief functions, the physical care of children—the provision of material things, food, clothing, and shelter; and what for lack of a better term may be called spiritual care—the provision of training and discipline and guidance of children in their family life. Those homes in which either or both of these functions have broken down may be described as incompetent homes.

#### 14. Home Conditions—Housing

In the materials used in this study information is given in regard to certain economic conditions related to the physical care of the juvenile delinquents included here. Such facts as home ownership, rents, size of house, and the keeping of boarders by affecting the physical well-being of children affect also their moral well-being.

An examination of the families of juvenile delinquents in this study in regard to home ownership shows that no Colored families own or are trying to buy homes, that about 20 per cent of both the Old Immigration and the Americans, and 60 per cent, or over half, of the New Immigration, own or are buying homes.

Home ownership as here given is not an indication, as might be supposed, of high economic station. Many of the homes are not paid for but are being bought on the payment plan. The drain thus made on the income of the family leaves the family oftentimes on the verge of sinking below the poverty line, often makes it necessary for boarders to be kept, for the mother to go out of the house to work, or other sacrifices to be made.³⁰ So that however fine is the desire to own a home, and however worthy the satisfaction of that desire, it cannot be denied that oftentimes the necessary pinching, saving, denial, and loss of privacy in the home are not sufficiently compensated thereby.

, The American families pay an average rental of \$25.46 a month, the Colored \$8.50 a month, the Old Immigration \$20.25 a month, and the New Immigration \$9.61 a month. That is, the average amount of rental paid by the American families is a

³⁰Breckenridge and Abbott, p. 81.

little higher than that paid by the Old Immigration and about three times that paid by the Colored and the New Immigration.³¹

The American families average 4.92 rooms to a family, the Colored 2 rooms, the Old Immigration 5.6 rooms, and the New Immigration 3.54 rooms. That is, the American families have more than one room to a family more than the New Immigration and almost 3 rooms to a family more than the Colored. The Old Immigration have almost one room to a family more than the Americans. Yet the average number of persons in the New Immigration families is greater than in any of the other groups, a fact which shows crowded conditions in the homes of the New Immigration to be much worse than in the other racial groups.

The American families pay an average rental per room of \$5.62, the Colored \$4.25, the Old Immigration \$3.68, and the New Immigration \$3.31. An examination of the differences in comforts received in exchange for these rentals makes the difference in amounts of rentals seem far too small.

Many of the families keep boarders. The keeping of boarders in the home affects the child both physically and morally. Outsiders taken into the home not only increase its crowded conditions but destroy its privacy. The keeping of boarders, however, is often an economic necessity, as without this source of income many families could not keep above the dependency level.

Of the 86 families of juvenile delinquents in Gary in 1912 to 1914, 14, or about 16.3 per cent, keep boarders. The practice was confined almost entirely to the New Immigration families. In many cases the juvenile record shows that the "home condition is made worse by the crowd of rough boarders", or "the gang of beer-drinking boarders make conditions very bad."³²

#### 15. Home Conditions—Family Life

In the materials used in this study information is given in regard to certain conditions affecting the spiritual care of the delinquents included here—the provision of training, discipline, and guidance—in the family life of these delinquents. Information is given as to such facts as broken homes, the presence of a stepmother or stepfather in the home, foster parents, physical, mental, or moral incompetency of one or both parents, lack of sympathy or open dissension between the parents, mothers who

³¹Travis, p. 38. ³²Breckenridge and Abbott, p. 118.

work away from home, lack of sympathy between parents and children or open ill-feeling, the number of children in the family among whom the care and attention of the mother must be distributed, special indulgence of children, and hostility between parents and such institutions as the schools and courts.

An examination of the civil condition in these families shows that in 68.1 per cent the parents are living together, in 14.1 per cent one parent is dead, in 3.3 per cent both parents are dead, in 3.5 per cent the parents are separated, in 1.1 per cent the parents are divorced, in 2.3 per cent one parent has deserted, in 3.5 per cent there is a stepmother, in 2.3 per cent there is a stepfather, in 1.1 per cent the parents are foster parents, and in 1.1 per cent there is no information. In these families the Colored show the greatest relative proportion of broken homes, followed in order by the Old Immigration with equal numbers of broken and normal homes, by the Americans with a little more than half as many broken homes as normal homes, and by the New Immigration with less than one-third as many broken as normal homes.

Of the total number, 30.7 per cent are broken homes. That this proportion of broken homes is somewhat lower than in juvenile delinquency studies made elsewhere is due largely to the fact that the figures in this study are based on family and not on case, the broken homes in every instance showing more than one delinquent case.³³

In 50 per cent of the total number of families there is a lack of sympathy between the parents because of some physical, mental, or moral incompetency of one or both parents or an unwillingness to get along together. For example, in 5 families the mother's reputation for morality is bad, in 11 one or both parents are drunken, in 2 the mother is permanently ill, in 2 the mother is insane, and in 10 there is open dissension between the parents. Such facts as are here given are necessarily only the most obvious ones since oftentimes such facts, as dissension between the parents for example, can be learned only after a long acquaintance with the family.

Any great disparity in the ages of parents may account for a lack of sympathy between them. An examination of the ages of the parents in the families in this study where the parents are living together shows that in 26.3 per cent there are from 6 to

³³Breckenridge and Abbott, pp. 91, 92; Morrison (Juvenile Offenders), p. 134; Barnett; Mangold; Everson; Rhoades.

10 years' difference in the ages of the parents, and in 18.4 per cent 11 to 20 years. This difference in ages is much more significant in the industrial class from which so many of the families in this study come, because both mothers and fathers in this class age early from the heavy physical strain under which they live and their deadening mental and moral outlook.

In some of the families the mothers work away from home regularly and cannot give the care to their children essential to their moral well-being. A more searching inquiry would undoubtedly have shown a much greater number of mothers. working away from home, if not regularly all day, at least too great a part of the time to give the proper care to their children.³⁴

In this study, in 39.5 per cent of the homes there is some special manifestation of neglect, indifference, cruelty, lack of understanding and sympathy, or inability to control the child on the part of the parents.35 Of the Old Immigration families, 50 per cent show some such unfavorable conditions, 42.3 per cent of the New Immigration, and 40.9 per cent of the American. The following examples are taken from notations appearing on the records of these cases: parents indifferent: the mother mistreats the girl, and the 17 years old the mother gives her vicious whippings; no sympathy between foster parents and child; the parents do not seem to understand the young girl and will not allow her to have company at home; the parents have no control over the child; parents want the boy sent away seemingly to get rid of him.

The age of the parents at the time of the birth of the child may be an important factor in their sympathy with him. the fathers in this study in which information is given as to age, in 20.4 per cent of the cases, the fathers were 36 or more years old at the time of the birth of the child, and the average age of the fathers at the time of the birth of the child is 30.3 years. Of the mothers for whom information is given 25 per cent are from 15 to 20 years of age at the time of the birth of the child. The average age of the mothers at the birth of the child is 24.9 years. Two facts here are significant. First, a fairly large proportion of the fathers are too old to sympathize with and app eciate the spirit of youth in their children; and second, a cc 1-

³⁴Breckenridge and Abbott, pp. 15, 100, 102, 103, 105, 123; Hall, p. 217; P. rrison (Juvenile Offenders), pp. 72-116; Travis, pp. 42-44; Mangold; Morr on, p. 149; Everson.

³⁵Breckenridge and Abbott, pp. 45, 105, 106, 123; Travis, pp. 43, 44, 45, 48; Hall, p. 217; Morrison (Juvenile Offenders), pp. 108-110; Mangold, pp. 226-228.

paratively large proportion of the mothers are too young to assume the responsibilities of the necessary home training and discipline of children.36

The age of the parent at the time the case comes to the court is also significant. In this study the greatest number of fathers is in the age group 36 to 40 years and of the mothers 31 to 45 vears. The average age of the fathers is 42.1 years and of the mothers 37 years. A comparatively large proportion of the fathers are from 46 to 60 years of age—too old to sympathize with or appreciate the spirit of youth in their children.

The number of children in the family, among whom the care and attention of the mother must be distributed, may have some relationship to juvenile delinquency. In this study the New Immigration shows the greatest average number of children to a family, followed in order by the Old Immigration, the American, and the Colored. Of the families of all races or nationalities, the average number of children is 4.35. 37 somewhat higher than the average number of children to a family in the general population of the United States in 1910.38 Any unfavorable relation between the large family and juvenile delinquency because of the mother's inability to give more time and attention to the training of each child may, however, be offset by the disciplinary effect of the necessary give and take between the members of the large family.

Another significant fact is the attitude of the parent to the oldest child, the youngest child, and the only child. In this study, 29.4 per cent of the delinquents are oldest children in the family, 9.8 per cent are youngest children, and 12.7 per cent are only children. The high proportion of oldest born may indicate that at the time of the birth of the child the parents were not mature enough to assume the responsibilities of the necessary home training and discipline. The relatively high proportion of the youngest born and only children is largely due to special indulgence on the part of parents in home training and discipline.39

In this study, in 22.9 per cent of the families there was no willingness on the part of the parents to cooperate with the schools or the courts. 40 Of the American families, 31.81 per cent show an unfavorable attitude toward the schools or courts

³⁶Breckenridge and Abbott, pp. 123, 124.
³⁷Breckenridge and Abbott, pp. 115, 116; Rhoades.
³⁸U.S. Census Report, 1910, Vol. I, p. 1285.
³⁹Breckenridge and Abbott, p. 117.
⁴⁶Breckenridge and Abbott, p. 15.

and 19.23 per cent of the New Immigration families. The high per cent of the American families in this group is a striking fact. The following examples are taken from notations on the records: parents antagonistic to school and court; parents have no regard for the law; parents will not coöperate with the school; parents shield the boy in his delinquent acts.

Because of the complexity of these unfavorable conditions in the family life of the juvenile delinquents in this study and because of the interrelation of such conditions, accurate measurements cannot be made of various factors. Where two or more unfavorable sets of conditions as listed here exist in the same home, that home is listed as spiritually incompetent. On this basis, 87.2 per cent of the homes represented in this study are spiritually incompetent. Of these the Colored show the highest relative proportions, followed in order by the New Immigration, the Old Immigration, and the Americans.

#### 16. Industrial Status⁴²

Thirty-one kinds of occupation are given by parents of juvenile delinquents in Gary in 1912–1914. These occupations are here classified in three groups. The first and lowest, group I, is that characterized by low paid and irregular work, including chambermaid work, keeping roomers and boarders, cooking, washing, cleaning, and sewing. The families in this group are chiefly those in which the mother is the bread-winner. The second, group II, includes the common laborers and workers paid on the same scale as common laborers—that is, those making from 17½ cents up to 24 cents an hour, or from \$1.50 to \$2.50 a day. Besides common laborers, this group includes bartenders, janitors, etc., receiving the wage of common labor. The third, group III, includes skilled laborers, clerks, one agent for brewing company, and one hotel-keeper.

In group I, the lowest group, the Colored families show the highest relative proportions, followed in order by the New Immigration and Americans—the Old Immigration showing no cases. In group II, the New Immigration shows the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the Colored, the Old Immigration, and the Americans. In group III, the highest group, the Americans show the highest relative proportions followed in order by

⁴¹Mangold, p. 225; Breckenridge and Abbott, p. 13; Travis, p. 48, a xxvi; Morrison (Juvetile Offenders), p. 119.
⁴²Original tables, pp. 55–57. See Preface to this study. See also Appendix, Table III.

the Old Immigration and the New Immigration; the Colored show no cases. That is, in this study the Colored and the New Immigration families are lower in the industrial scale than the American and Old Immigration. Of the total numbers of families of all races and nationalities, the highest proportion, almost half, are in group II, followed by those in group III, with the smallest number in group I.

## IV. Certain Associations of Adult Crime

#### SECTION I

#### A. General Considerations

Section I of this study of adult crime in Gary consists of 3,031 cases of persons arrested by the police to be brought before the city court during a period of twelve months from January 1, 1914, to December 31, 1914, inclusive. In this number, 47 single race or nationality units are represented.1

## 1. PROPORTION BY RACE OF NATIONALITY²

An examination of these cases arranged according to single race or nationality units shows that the Americans furnish the highest proportions of the total number, followed in order by the Colored and the Poles. Arranged according to race or nationality groups, the New Immigration shows the highest proportions, followed in order by the Americans, the Old Immigration, and the Colored.

In order, however, to determine the true relation of any race or nationality to crime, the proportion which that race or nationality furnishes to crime should be compared with the proportion which that race or nationality furnishes to the general population in the corresponding ages.3

From the figures at hand it appears that in general the Americans and Old Immigration bear less than their proportional share and the Colored and New Immigration more than their proportional share of adult offenders in this study.

## 2. Kinds of Offenses⁴

In a study of adult crime, kind of offense is a much more important fact than in juvenile delinquency because in crime the act committed indicates more clearly the character of the individual, and also because the act committed is still used as the basis of treatment of the individual.

 $^{^{1}\}mathrm{See}$  p. 42, this study.  $^{2}\mathrm{Original}$  tables, pp. 58–61. See Preface to this study. See also Appendix, Table IV.  $^{3}\mathrm{Koren}$ , pp. 28, 40, 41.  $^{4}\mathrm{Original}$  tables, pp. 61–74. See Preface to this study. See also Appendix, Table V.

The prevalence of certain kinds of offenses as shown in the police records of a community depends largely upon the manner of dealing with such offenses in that community. The fact that there appears in the police records a very great many cases of assault and battery, drunkenness, vagrancy, larceny, gambling, prostitution, running houses of ill fame, frequenting houses of ill fame, and adultery may not mean that these offenses are more prevalent in that community than in any other, but may be due to the special activity of the police in arresting such offenders. and to the severity of the courts in dealing with them.

In this study of crime in Gary, such offenses as drunkenness, vagrancy, disorderly conduct, etc., are considered crimes according to the definition of crime as used in this study—that is, offenses which the law so recognizes and punishes.5

The general classification of offenses used in this study is a modification of that of the Special Report of the United States Census of 1904 on Prisoners and Juvenile Delinquents, prepared by John Koren. Offeases are classified under five chief headings: offenses against the person; offenses against property; offenses against society, including offenses against chastity and morality and offenses against public policy; miscellaneous offenses; and offenses not specified.

In this study under the first heading, offenses against the person, are included the following: accessory in homicide, homicide, assault, robbery, rape, and attempted rape. Under the heading, offenses against property, are included the following: burglary, larceny, forgery, fraud, embezzlement, malicious mischief and malicious trespass, and malicious destruction of property. Offenses against society are divided into two subdivisions. Under the subdivision, offenses against chastity and morality, are included the following: adultery, bigamy, crime against nature, fornication, running houses of ill fame, prostitution, public indecency, and profanity. Under the subdivision, offenses against public policy, are included the following: counterfeiting, violating United States laws, drunkenness, disorderly conduct, violating liquor laws, vagrancy, violating local ordinances, operating gambling-houses, gambling, violating pure food laws, violating fish and game laws, riot, cruelty to animals, provoke, and such other offenses as soliciting business in court, jumping bond, fugitive from justice, interfering with officer, contributing to

⁵Quinton, p. 94; Boies, pp. 88, 89. ⁶Koren, p. 19.

delinquency, breaking peace bond, contempt of court, arrest on bench warrant, assisting prisoner to escape. Under the heading, miscellaneous, are included the following: cruelty to children, abandonment or non-support of wife, of wife and children, and bastardy. The heading, offenses not stated, explains itself.

This classification differs from that in the census in that no separate heading is made of "double crimes", and that the subdivision "offenses against chastity" is made to include offenses against chastity and morality. Some offenses are included under headings in this study which are not so classified in the ceasus report; for example "provoke" is included under the heading "offenses against public policy". These changes are made because of the difference in basis of figures in this study, which refer to arrests, and that of the figures in the census report which refer to commitments; also because certain offenses in the census reports are not specifically classified on account of the small numbers in such classes.

The difficulty of reducing offenses to this classification and the inexactness of such a classification are apparent. The inexactness, however, lies in comparatively few offenses of comparatively few numbers, and, moreover, the advantage of such a proceeding lies in its simplicity for the purpose of the comparison of general principles. For the three great classes of crimes are universal: those against the person, those against property, and those against society.

An examination of the cases represented in this study arranged according to race or nationality group and four principal classes of kinds of offenses shows that in absolute numbers, in offenses against the person, the New Immigration leads, followed in order by the Americans, the Old Immigration, and the Colored with almost equal numbers, the Asiatics and other Americans showing negligible numbers. In offenses against property the New Immigration leads, followed in order by the Colored, the Old Immigration, and the Americans. In offenses against chastity and morality the New Immigration leads, followed closely in order by the Colored, the Americans and the Old Immigration showing fewer numbers. In offenses against public policy the New Immigration leads, followed in order by the Americans, the Old Immigration, and the Colored.

To determine the true relation, however, between race or nationality and kind of offense, the proportion which each race

⁷Quinton, p. 94; Boies, pp. 88, 89.

or nationality group furnishes to the main classes of kinds of offense must be compared with the proportion which that race or nationality group furnishes to the total amount of crime. this basis, an examination of the cases in this study shows that the Americans furnish less than their fair share of offenses against the person and against property, and more than their fair share of offenses against chastity and morality and against public policy. The Colored bear less than their fair share of offenses against the person, slightly less against public policy, about their fair share against property, and much more than their share against chastity and morality. The Old Immigration resembles the Americans in bearing less than its fair share of offenses against the person and against property, and more against chastity and morality and against public policy. The New Immigration bears more than its share of offenses against the person and against property, but less against chastity and morality and against public policy. 8 That is, in offenses against society the American and Old Immigration lead, and in offenses against the person and against property the New Immigration leads.

A study of these cases arranged according to specific kinds of offense and single race or nationality unit is extremely interesting. Only in the following specific kinds of offenses were there sufficient numbers and sufficient definiteness in the charge for profitable comparison: assault and battery, drunkenness, vagrancy, larceny, gambling, prostitution, running house of ill fame, adultery, associating, and fornication.

In assault and battery cases the Servians show the highest relative proportions, followed in order by the Greeks, Russians, Roumanians, Slavs, Lithuanians, Austrians, Poles, Croatians, Macedonians, Hungarians, Italians, Bohemians, English, Germans, Horoats, Colored, Jews, Americans, Irish, and Scotch.

In the cases of drunkenness the Swedes show the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by Scotch, Irish, Americans, English, Slavish, Russians, Lithuanians, Hungarians, Polish, German, Horoats, Austrians, Croatians, French, Greek, Servians, Roumanians, Italians, and Colored.

, In the cases of vagrancy the Austrians show the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the French, Croatians, Scotch, Irish, Americans, English, Germans, Jews, Colored, Greeks, Hungarians, Polish, Swedes, Russians, Italians, Lithuanians, and Servians.

 $^{^8\}mathrm{Morrison}$  (Crime and Its Causes), pp. 38, 39; Lombroso (Crime, Its Causes and Remedies), pp. 23, 26, 30, 33, 35, 38; Aschaeffenburg, p. 32.

In the cases of larceny the Macedonians show the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the Roumanians, Lithuanians, Austrians, Poles, Colored, Greeks, Hungarians, Russians, Servians, Slavs, Italians, Germans, Horoats, Jews, English, French, Bohemians, Americans, Scotch, Irish, and Swedish.

In the cases of gambling the Colored shows the greatest proportional number, followed in order by the Jews, Servians, Austrians, Poles, Hungarians, Russians, Americans, Slavs, and Irish.

In the cases of prostitution the French show the greatest proportional numbers, followed in order by the Germans, Colored, Jews, Italians, Bohemians, Americans, Horoats, English, Irish, Hungarians, Russians, Servians, Austrians, Polish, and Roumanians.

In the cases of running houses of ill fame, the Bohemians show the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the Jews, English, Irish, Colored, Germans, Greeks, Hungarians, Americans, Russians, and Poles.

In cases of adultery, the Horoats show the highest proportional number, followed in order by the Roumanians, Italians, Colored, Americans, Servians, Croatians and Jews the same, Greeks, Austrians, Germans, and Macedonians.

In the cases of associating or frequenting houses of ill fame, the Greeks show the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by Colored, Americans, Roumanians, Lithuanians, Poles, Germans, Hungarians, Slavs, Servians, Austrians, Italians, Russians, and Irish.

An examination of these cases arranged according to race or nationality group shows that in assault and battery cases the New Immigration shows the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the Colored, Old Immigration, and Americans. In drunkenness the Old Immigration shows the highest proportional numbers followed in order by Americans, New Immigration, and Colored. In cases of vagrancy the Americans show the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the Old Immigration, the Colored, and the New Immigration. In the larceny cases the New Immigration shows the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the Colored, Old Immigration, and Americans. In cases of gambling the Colored show by far the highest proportional numbers followed in order by the New Immigration, the Americans, and the Old Immigration.

In prostitution the Colored show the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the Old Immigration and Americans, the New Immigration showing comparatively few cases. In running houses of ill fame the Colored again show the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the Old Immigration, the American, and the New Immigration. In adultery the Colored show the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the Americans, the New Immigration, and the Old Immigration. In associating or frequenting houses of ill fame the Colored show the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the Americans, New Immigration, and Old Immigration.

It is significant that in the two specific kinds of offenses, assault and battery and drunkenness, the ranking of the racial or national groups is reversed. In assault and battery the New Immigration and Colored show the highest proportional numbers, while in drunkenness these two groups show the fewest proportional numbers. Evidently here the relation between assault and battery and drunkenness is not very close.

Of all the offenses represented in this study, drunkenness shows the highest proportional numbers, followed by assault and battery, larceny, prostitution, gambling, vagrancy, associating, adultery, and running houses of ill fame. It must be remembered that this ranking is for cases arrested, and may not be the true ranking of these offenses in the community. This possible discrepancy is due to the fact that certain offenses are more easily detected than others—such as gambling, for example—and also to the fact that the public regards certain offenses as much more serious than others and demands action in such—as assault and battery for example—while almost disregarding certain other offenses—as gambling for example.

An examination of the ranking of the four classes of offenses, those against the person, those against property, those against chastity and morality, and those against public policy, in this study, in studies in Indiana, and in the United States, shows a wide variation not only in different parts of the country, but for the same parts of the country at the same time. For example, in the United States in June, 1904, offenses against property ranked highest, while for the whole year 1904 offenses against public policy ranked highest.¹⁰ These differences are due to

⁹Boies, p. 198; Quinton, p. 109; McKinn, p. 150; Koren, pp. 21–23. ¹⁹Koren, p. 20; Boies, pp. 33, 34 quoting 11th Census of the United States, Compendium, Part II, p. 192.

differences in dealing with certain kinds of offenses, differences in basis of the groups, differences in laws and in crime classifications in different parts of the country.

## 3. Disposition of Cases¹¹

The terminology used in this section on disposition of cases in this study is that used in the arrest sheets. Cases are classified under four general headings: first, those showing sentences imposed; second, those showing no sentences imposed; third, cases incompleted; and fourth, those in which the disposition of the case is not given.

Under the first heading, seatences imposed, are included those cases in which fines were paid, fines stayed, jail sentence imposed on failure to pay fine, and fine and jail sentence imposed. Under the second heading, no sentence imposed, are included cases released by the police, nolle prossed, discharged by the judge, and dismissed. Under the third heading, case incompleted, are included cases pending, continued (which includes cases released on own recognizance, released on bond, and bond defaulted), cases turned over to the circuit and superior courts, released to other officers (officers of other cities, constables, marshalls, sheriffs, federal authorities, immigration inspector, and officers of Monon Railway), and miscellaneous (appealed, suspended sentence, new trial).

An examination of the cases in this study arranged according to the relative proportions of each race or nationality group having sentences imposed shows that the Americans have the smallest relative proportions with a sentence imposed followed in order by the Old Immigration, the Colored, and the New Immigration. That is, in their chance of being sentenced after having been arrested, the American and Old Immigration offenders stand in a more favorable relation before the officers and the courts than the Colored and the New Immigration offenders.

That this fact cannot be explained by the possibility that the American and Old Immigration show a smaller relative proportion of those offenses in which conviction is most likely, is shown by an examination of the relation between offenses and disposition. This examination shows that while the New Immigration and Colored show higher per cents of their totals receiving sentences than the Americans, they also show smaller percentages

¹¹Original tables, pp. 74-86. See Preface to this study.

in all those classes of offenses showing the greatest percentage of convictions, except in drunkenness, when the Americans and Old Immigration show the highest per cent.

Only 43.9 per cent of all the cases arrested (in which disposition of case is given) for all offenses have a sentence imposed. This relatively small proportion of cases with sentences imposed is due to a number of reasons among which may be mentioned the following: humanitarian considerations on the part of the police, prosecutor, and judge; to confused or insufficient evidence for conviction; to a lack of seriousness of some of the offenses; to the leniency of police, prosecutor, and judge in the case of females; to the attitude of officers of the law toward certain offenses; to the lack of a uniform intelligent policy of treatment of certain kinds of offenses by the state; and to an honest difference of opinion regarding the treatment of certain kinds of offenses.

In an examination of the relation between imposition of sentences and offenses only certain kinds of specific offenses in this study show sufficient numbers and sufficient definiteness in the charge to be of value. Of these the cases of drunkenness show the highest relative proportions receiving sentences followed in order by adultery, larceny, gambling, assault and battery, associating, vagrancy, prostitution, and running houses of ill fame.

Of the cases in which sentences were imposed, some paid fines, some had their fines stayed, some were sentenced to jail on failure to pay fines assessed, and some were both fined and sentenced to jail.

An examination of the cases arranged according to race or nationality group and type of sentence imposed shows that in the payment of fines the New Immigration furnishes by far the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the Old Immigration, the American, and the Colored. In cases of fines stayed the Colored show by far the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the New Immigration, the Old Immigration, and the Americans. In those cases sentenced to jail on failure to pay fines assessed the Americans show by far the highest proportions, followed in order by the Colored, the New Immigration, and the Old Immigration. In cases having both jail sentences and fines imposed the Colored show the highest proportions, followed in order by the New Immigration, the Old Immigration, and the Americans.

By combining those cases who paid fines and those who were sentenced to jail on failure to pay fines (in which latter case the court had no way to determine whether the fine would be paid or not) the wide differences between race or nationality group tend to smooth out. The relatively high proportion of the New Immigration paying fines means little more than that offenders in this group prefer to, and manage to pay their fines rather than to "lay them out" in jail, and no one race or nationality group stands in a more unfavorable relation to the court in the matter of payment of fines than any other group.

In this study a much smaller proportion of females received sentences than of males. Of the total number of cases of all races or nationalities, 31.46 per cent of the females have sentences imposed while 43.93 per cent of the males received sentences. This difference is due largely to the special leniency of officers and courts in dealing with women offenders, and probably also to differences in opinion as to dealing with the chief kind of offense committed by the majority of women in this study—prostitution.

An examination of the cases of women in this study arranged according to race or nationality groups and sentences imposed shows that the Colored receive the most severe sentences.

## B. Individual Considerations

#### 4. $AGE^{12}$

The age groups used in this study of adult crime are those used by John Koren in the Special Report of the United States Census on Prisoners and Juvenile Delinquents in 1904. These groups are 16 to 19, 20 to 24, 25 to 29, 30 to 34, 35 to 39, 40 to 44, 45 to 49, 50 to 59, 60 to 69, and 70 years and over.

An examination of the cases in this study arranged according to age groups and single race or nationality unit shows that with the exception of the English, Scotch, Slavs, and Swedes, each race or nationality has the greatest number of offenders in the age groups 20 to 24 years and 25 to 29 years, that is, in general, in the years 20 to 30.

Arranged according to race or nationality group and ages, the Americans show the greatest number of cases 20 to 30 years of age with a large proportion 30 to 34 years of age. The Colored show the greatest number of cases 20 to 30 years of age with a

¹²Original tables, pp. 86-91. See Preface to this study.

large proportion 30 to 40 years of age. The Old Immigration shows the greatest number 20 to 30 years of age with large numbers on to the forty-fifth year. The New Immigration shows the greatest number of cases 20 to 30 years of age with quite a rapid decline in numbers after the thirty-fourth year.

This variation in the New Immigration cases—the preponderance of cases in the age group 20 to 30 years, and the very rapid decline in numbers after the thirty-fourth year—is without doubt due to the fact that by far the greatest number of persons of the New Immigration in the general population of the country belong to the age group 16 to 45, the years of the greatest amount of crime. This result is consistent with figures for the United States as a whole where in both major and minor offenses the native whites are older than the foreign born, a fact explained by the age of arrival of the foreign born in this country.¹³

Of the total number of cases of all races or nationalities there is a gradual increase in numbers from the age of 16 up to the highest numbers in the age group 25 to 29 years after which there is a gradual decline to the age of 70 and over. In the United States as a whole the crest of the curve is reached in the years 20 to 24.

A comparison of the age groups of greatest numbers of offenders in this study with those in studies by Ferrero, Lombroso, and Morrison, and in studies in Austria, France, and England shows that the Gary figures are about midway between the extremes given in other studies.¹⁴

An examination of these cases arranged according to age groups and sex shows the greatest number of female offenders in the group 16 to 19 years, with almost an equal number 20 to 24 years, and a gradual decrease thru the remaining age groups to the age of 44 years, when the decrease is very rapid. This result is consistent with the conclusion reached by De Quiros that after the age of 46 years females show less criminality. In the Gary study the women are in general younger than the men.

## 5. Sex¹⁶

In this part of the study of crime in Gary, of the total number of offenders, 2,682 are males and 349 females.

Koren, pp. 49, 51.
 Ferrero, p. 151; Lombroso (Crime, Its Causes and Remedies), pp. 175, 176;
 Morrison (Crime and Its Causes), pp. 160, 161.
 De Quiros.

¹⁶ Original tables, pp. 91-96. See Preface to this study.

Arranged according to single race or nationality unit and sex. the single race or nationality units show a wide variation in the proportion of the sexes. The Greeks, for example, show 76 men and no women offenders, while the Colored and German show almost half as many women as men.

In this study 22 single race or nationality units show females. Of these the Spanish show the highest proportions followed in order by the Germans, Colored, French, English, Jewish, Bohemians, Italians, Horoats, Servians, Americans, Hungarians, Roumanians, Irish, Croatians, Poles, Russians, Austrians, Slavish, Lithuanians, Norwegians, and Swedes.

These cases arranged according to race or nationality groups show the Colored with much the highest relative proportion of females, followed in order by the Old Immigration and the Americans, the New Immigration showing a relatively small proportion of females. This relatively small proportion of female offenders in the New Immigration may be partly but not entirely explained by the variation in proportions of males and females of this race or nationality group in the United States. Census Report of 1910 shows that, while in the general population the proportion of the sexes in the other groups is nearly the same, in the foreign born white population the per cent of females is only 43.6 per cent.

A comparison of the proportions of sexes of offenders in this study and those of studies by Drähms for the United States, by Lombroso for Italy, by Ferrero for Austria, Spain, and Italy shows a considerable variation for the different countries and for different parts of the same country.¹⁷ In all these studies the proportion of females seldom rises above 20 per cent or falls below 6 per cent. In this study the proportion of females is 11.5 per cent.

## CIVIL CONDITION¹⁸

In the material for this study of crime, information as to civil condition of offenders is given only as married or unmarried. There is no information as to those widowed, separated, or divorced among whom criminality is in general high. 19 However, since widowed, separated, and divorced offenders usually answer

¹⁷Drähms, p. 217; Koren, p. 16; Lombroso (Crime and Its Causes), pp. 181, 182, 191; Ferrero, p. 151. Aschaeffenburg, pp. 160, 161; De Quiros, p. 113; Lydston, p. 143, Morrison (Crime and Its Causes, p. 152; Kellor, p. 158.
¹⁸Original tables, pp. 96-102. See Preface to this study.
¹⁹Aschaeffenburg, p. 167.

in the negative when asked if married, these classes may with little chance of error be assumed to be included in the list of unmarried, and those answering in the affirmative may with little chance of error be assumed to have some sort of family life.²⁰

An examination of the cases in this study arranged according to single race or nationality units and civil condition shows that in most of the single race or nationality units of the New Immigration the per cent of those married is in general higher than among other race or nationality units. There is an important exception to this in the case of the Greeks and Italians. This may be explained partly at least by the fact that more unmarried men in the general population of those race or nationality units come to the United States.²¹ Among the race or nationality units belonging to the Old Immigration, the proportion of married offenders is in general lower than in other race or nationality units.

Comparing the proportion of married offenders in this study by race or nationality group with the proportion of married persons in the general population of the United States in 1910 by the roughly corresponding color and nativity group, the criminal population in this study shows a much smaller proportion of persons married in every group.

Of the total number of cases of all races or nationality groups in this study, 41.8 per cent are married, while in the general population of the United States in 1910, 57.3 per cent are married.

An examination of the women offenders of this study shows that the proportion of married women (37.4 per cent) is considerably less than the proportion of married women (58.9 per cent) in the general population of the United States in 1910.

The proportion of married women in this study is considerably less than the proportion of married men.

This conclusion as to the small proportion of married persons in this study is consistent with conclusions reached by investigators of crime both in this country and abroad.²²

## 7. ILLITERACY²³

In this study the only information given in the materials as to amount of education is that of ability to read and write, a

Lydston, p. 139; Census, 1910, Vol. I, Population, p. 507.
 Fairchild (Greek Immigration). See also immigration statistics,
 Koren, p. 55; Aschaeffenburg, pp. 162, 166, 167; Lombroso (Crime, Its Causes and Remedies), p. 192; Lydston, p. 138; De Quiros, p. 114.
 Original tables, pp. 102–107. See Preface to this study.

fact which is here taken to represent literacy.²⁴ Altho literacy is no measure of amount of education, illiteracy may be taken as an indication of lack of school training.

An examination of the cases in this study arranged according to illiterates and single race or nationality units shows that the race or nationality units vary widely in proportions of illiterates.

In the case of certain race or nationality units it is possible to secure figures for illiteracy in their native country. Of those race or nationality units showing both sufficient numbers for comparison and figures for illiteracy in their native countries, the Austrians, Greeks, Italians, and Russians in the criminal population of Gary show a higher per cent of illiteracy than is found in the general population of their respective countries; the Irish and Servians a lower per cent; and the Roumanians almost the same per cent.

An examination of these cases arranged according to race or nationality groups and illiteracy shows the New Immigration with by far the greatest relative proportion of illiterates followed in order by the Colored, the Old Immigration, and the Americans.

Comparing the proportion of illiterates in these race or nationality groups in this study to the proportion of illiterates in the roughly corresponding groups in the general population of the United States ten years of age and over in 1910, the Old Immigration and New Immigration in this study show a higher proportion of illiterates while the Americans and the Colored show a lower proportion.

Of all the cases of all races or nationalities in this study, 35.7 per cent are illiterate. The proportion of illiterates in the general population of the United States 10 years of age and over in 1910 was 7.7 per cent.

The per cent of illiterates among the women offenders in this study is 21.7 per cent, less than that for both sexes (35.7 per cent) and greater than that for women in the general population of the United States 10 years of age and over in 1910 (7.8 per cent).

The figures given here are consistent with results obtained by investigators of crime in other parts of this country and abroad.²⁵

It is difficult to trace a causal relationship between lack of education and crime.²⁶ Many factors enter into the matter of

 ²⁴See Census, 1910, Vol. I, Population, for use of word "illiteracy".
 ²⁵Koren, pp. 56, 57; Bennet, p. 14; Symposium, Physical Bases of Crime, p. 63;
 Drähms, p. 189.
 ²⁶Lombroso (Crime, Its Causes and Remedies), pp. 111, 108; Boies, p. 47; Aschaeffenburg, pp. 136–138.

illiteracy which indicate that the chief fact so far as crime is concerned is not illiteracy itself, but other facts lying back of illiteracy.

## 8. Height and Weight²⁷

In the materials for this study the only information given as to physical measurements is that of height and weight of offenders. A careful examination was made of the heights and weights of the cases given here.

In considering height, the cases of the males 21 years of age and over were arranged according to cace and nationality units and inches in height. A comparison was made of the average height for each race or nationality unit represented in this study to measurements for the same race or nationality unit as given by the anthropologists, Deniker, Topinard, Haddon, and Keane. A comparison was made of the average height of all the cases of all races or nationalities in this study to the average height of man as given by Deniker, Topinard, Haddon, Keane, and De Quatrefages. A comparison was made of the average height of males under 21 years of age with the average height of man as given by Deniker and Topinard. The cases of females 21 years of age and over were arranged according to race and nationality units and inches in height. The average heights of these race or nationality units was compared to the average heights of the corresponding races or nationalities as given by Deniker, Keane, Haddon, and Topinard.28

Weight varies normally according to height and age. In considering weight, the cases in this study, the cases of males 21 years of age or over, were arranged according to the average weight in pounds for all heights of males for each race or nationality unit, and also according to the average weight in pounds for age and height classes and single race or nationality unit. The average weights according to height and age of race or nationality units was compared to the corresponding height and age classes as given in a table of 74,162 accepted applicants for life insurance reported to the Association of Life Insurance Medical Directors. These average weights were also compared to average weights for certain race or nationality units regardless of age and height

²⁷Original tables, pp. 107–125. See Preface to this study.
²⁸Topinard (Anthropologie Generale), pp. 427–443; (L'anthropologie), pp. 353–358; (Anthropology), p. 320; Deniker, pp. 30, 577–584; Haddon (The Races of Man), pp. 3, 18, 43, 44, 45, 46; Keane (Ethnology), pp. 188, 189; De Quatrefages, pp. 353, 354.

as reported by Topinard. Cases of males under 21 years of age in this study were arranged according to average weights of single race or nationality units by age and these were compared with the average weights of the cases in this study over 21 years of age. Cases of females 21 years of age and over in this study were arranged according to weight, height, and single race or nationality units and compared with average weights and heights of women as given in a table in the World's Almanac and Encyclopedia for 1916.29

In the cases of women in this study, there are three prostitutes weighing 400 pounds each. Lombroso calls attention to abnormality in the weights of prostitutes.30

No inferiority in height and weight was found in the cases in this study, but in many cases, especially in the New Immigration, an actual superiority to heights and weights in general population as computed by anthropologists. This fact is in general contrary to conclusions of most criminologists.³¹ This difference is due, without doubt, not to the fact that the Gary criminal population as such shows anything peculiar in this connection, but to the fact that the general population of Garv is a selected population. Because of the newness of the city of Gary it has attracted to it the pioneer type of people, that is, the most vigorous and enterprising persons from rural communities and other cities and towns in this country. Especially is this true of the New Immigration where a double process of selection has been at work: first, in the old country where only the more vigorous and enterprising types in the community emigrate, and, second, in the cities and towns of this country where only the more vigorous and enterprising remove to other towns and cities. Another factor in the superiority of height and weight of the New Immigration population of Gary is that of their peasant origin where the stock is generally sturdy.32

Another factor that may enter here in explaining the difference in conclusion reached here as to height and weight of cases in this study and that in other studies of crime is the fact that these are cases of petty crime only, while other studies referred to include cases of much more serious crimes.

²⁹Topinard (L'Anthropologie), p. 423; Deniker, p. 577; Topinard (Anthropology), p. 398, World's Almanac and Encyclopedia, 1916, p. 83.

³⁰Lombroso and Ferrero (The Female Offender), pp. 50–113.

³¹Aschaeffenburg, p. 168; Symposium, Physical Bases of Crime, Rock Sleyster, M.D., p. 116, Z. R. Brockway, p. 135; Boies, p. 24; De Quiros, p. 116; Kellor, p. 44; Healey, p. 242; Ferrero and Lombroso, pp. 47, 48; Macdonald, p. 38.

³²Topinard (Anthropology), p. 398, (Anthropologie Generale), p. 448; Ripley, p. 80; Keane (Ethnology), p. 187; De Quarrefages, p. 353.

#### C. Cosmic Considerations

#### 9. Seasonal Crime³³

The only cosmic consideration for which practicable information can be had for this study is seasonal crime. An examination of the cases arranged according to months of the year and offenses shows that the greatest number of cases of all races or nationalities and of both sexes are in the spring months followed in order by summer, autumn, and winter. This conclusion that the greatest number of offenses are in the warm months and the fewest in the cold months is consistent with the results of investigations of crime elsewhere.34

## D. Social Considerations

#### 10. BIRTHFLACE³⁵

Since Gary was incorporated only in 1906 it is clear that its population over 8 years of age must have been born elsewhere.³⁶

Arranging the cases according to birthplace in the United States and abroad by race or nationality groups, as would be supposed, the Americans and Colored show very small proportions born abroad, the Americans 1.41 per cent and the Colored 0.03 per cent. Of the Old and New Immigration, the Old Immigration shows 30.6 per cent born abroad and the New Immigration 65.3 per cent.

Arranging these cases according to sex, a significant fact is the unusually high proportion of females of the Old Immigration born in the United States as compared to the males in the same race or nationality group.

Of the total number of cases in this study the per cent of those born in the United States is about half that of those born abroad. This unusually high proportion of foreign born offenders in Gary is due partly to the high proportion of foreign born in the general population of Gary, and partly to the fact that cases in this study are those of minor offenses in which the proportion of foreign born is in general high.37

Of the foreign born, in some cases the information is given as to specific country or province of birth, in others merely "the

 ³³ Original tables, pp. 126–130. See Preface to this study.
 34 Leffingwell, p. 132; Lombroso (Crime, Its Causes and Remedies), p. 2; Morrison (Crime and Its Causes), pp. 61, 66, 63.
 35 Original tables, pp. 131–144. See Preface to this study.
 35 This study is based on material gathered in 1914.
 37 Healey, p. 150; Boies, p. 68; Koren, pp. 18–40.

old country" is given as birthplace. Altho in some cases it is clear to what country this phrase refers—as, for example, the Belgiaus who are born in the "old country" are without doubt born in Belgium—in many cases it is not clear, as, for instance, in the case of the Jews, where the phrase has a bit of pathos in it. Almost every country and province in Europe is represented in birthplaces of these cases.

Of the cases born in the United States where information is given as to specific place of birth, 38 states and the District of Columbia are represented. Of the total number, only 2 are given as being born in territory now included in the city of Gary, 20 are born in the nearby towns in the county, 88 are born in Chicago, and 57 in Indiana. Of the adjoining states, Illinois (with the exception of Chicago) furnished 48, Kentucky 45, Ohio 41, and Michigan 22. Higher than these, however, ranks Pennsylvania, with 91.

An examination of these cases according to geographical divisions as used in the United States census shows that the greatest number of cases born in the United States come from the eastern north central states, the region closest geographically to Gary; the second greatest number in the middle Atlantic states. This second group has followed two influences: the general westward movement of population in the United States, and the movement to Gary of industrial populations from the older industrial states, especially the iron and steel making states.

Of the Colored, the great majority have come from the old slave states and those southern states showing large colored populations. These cases have followed the general northward movement of the colored population of the country.

Without doubt much of the petty crime in Gary is due to the confusion caused by lack of uniformity of moral standards and ignorance of legal regulations among the various racial and national groups making up its population. Even that part of the population born in the United States is recruited from many communities in many parts of the country, each differing somewhat from the other in morals, customs, and laws. The only unifying element in the American born population is the fact that much of it has been accustomed to an industrial community such as Gary is.

But if confusion results among the native born population because of the various parts of the country from which it has been drawn, what must be the situation in the case of the foreign born who are recruited from almost every country and province in Europe and many countries of America and Asia? Many of the foreign born, however, have not come directly to Gary on coming to this country, but have moved from some other industrial city in the United States to Gary and so are somewhat accustomed to an industrial community.

## 11. Association in Crime³⁸

There are certain criminal acts which by their nature involve more than one person, and certain others that may or may not be engaged in by more than one person. Such are assault and battery where two persons are necessarily involved, the one may or may not be passive; and highway robbery where several persons may join in the same criminal act.

In this study, information is not available in all types of offenses to show whether one or more persons are involved. Some of the cases of assault and battery, larceny, gambling, malicious destruction of property and malicious trespass, prostitution, adultery, riot, and highway robbery give information which is quite significant in the determination of the relation between race or nationality and association in crime.

In assault and battery about twice as many cases are between individuals of the same race or nationality—as, for example, Pole against Pole—as between individuals of different race or nationality units, as, for example, Russian against German. That is, the persons of the same race or nationality units fight among themselves about twice as often as with persons of other race or nationality units. These figures do not indicate that the contact of many races or nationalities in Gary increases race antagonism.

Trouble between individuals of different races or nationalities does not apparently follow the lines of old race prejudices in Europe, about as many cases being shown in which the participants belong to races or nationalities between which there is no sharp antagonism in the countries of origin—as, for example, Pole against Slav, or Greek against Colored—as belong to races or nationalities between which there are many causes of bitterness in the country of origin—as, for example, Russian against Pole, or Austrian against Servian.

In larceny where more than one person is involved, the case is somewhat different. Two or more individuals are here

³⁸Original tables, pp. 145-150. See Preface to this study.

coöperating to commit the same act. In this study almost equal numbers of larceny cases show individuals of the same race or nationality and individuals of different race or nationality engaged in the same offense. Where two or more race or nationality units are represented in the same act, they are not such as are especially bound together by ties of friendship in their countries of origin, as, for example, Austrian, Servian, Croatian.

In cases of gambling or operating a gambling-house, there is opportunity for a great many persons to be involved. In these offenses, equal numbers of cases are shown in which individuals belong to the same race or nationality, and to different races or nationalities. In cases where more than one race or nationality is represented, the individuals in some instances belong to races or nationalities where there is no special antagonism in the countries of origin, and in some instances to races or nationalities where there are many causes of bitterness in the countries of origin.

In the offenses of malicious destruction of property and malicious trespass, information as to complicity is given in 4 cases. In each of these cases the persons involved belong to the same race or nationality. In these cases the offense is oftentimes committed by members of the same household group (as, for example, trespassing on the railroad to get coal) where usually the persons belong to the same race or nationality whether because of ties of blood or because of friendship.

In all of the cases of riot except one the persons involved belong to the same race or nationality. The one case where they do not belong to the same race or nationality shows that likeness of race or nationality is not an essential factor in this offense.

In highway robbery, equal numbers of cases show individuals belonging to the same race or nationality and to different races or nationalities, and when members belong to different races or nationalities, the races or nationalities represented are not such as are closely bound together in the countries of origin.

In adultery, almost half the cases show individuals of different races or nationalities, and in those cases between men and women of different races or nationalities the races or nationalities represented are in some instances those in which there are special antagonisms in the countries of origin and sometimes not.

In the cases of prostitution, an almost equal number of cases show individuals belonging to the same race or nationality and to different races or nationalities. The women in the same house at the same time and the men visiting the same house at the same time in some instances belong to the same race or nationality and in some instances not. Men of one race or nationality in some instances visit women of the same race or nationality and in some instances not.

From this number of cases in which information as to complicity is given it cannot be said that the fact of difference of race or nationality or likeness of race or nationality in itself shows any special effect in either offenses in which the act involves opposition between the persons engaged, or those in which the act involves coöperation between the persons engaged.

## 12. Geographical Distribution³⁹

Those offenders giving homes elsewhere than Gary are considered nonresidents. This term here includes those having legitimate business in Gary and working there every day, as well as bona fide nonresidents. The residents of Gary, those giving a Gary address as their home, are divided into five groups according to the district of Gary in which they live; those living on the North Side, those living on the South Side, those living in Tolleston, those living in Gary with no street and number specified, and those living in other parts of Gary not included in the first three districts.⁴⁰

An examination of the cases arranged according to this classification and race or nationality group shows that the Americans have the highest proportion of nonresidents, followed by the Old Immigration, the New Immigration and the Colored having very much smaller proportions. Of the total number of cases, 17.38 per cent are nonresidents of Gary. This comparatively high proportion of nonresidents, however, is not so significant a fact in crime in Gary because of the fact that this study includes many individuals who have their homes in Chicago or other nearby cities and towns, coming in to Gary to work every day on street cars and trains; persons who under other conditions would have their residence in Gary.

Of those offenders giving a street and number as their place of residence in Gary, by far the greatest numbers live in the North Side and South Side districts. Of the single race or nationality units of the Old Immigration, the Germans alone show higher proportions living on the South Side, due to the number of pros-

 $^{^{39} \}rm Original$  tables, pp. 151–155. See Preface to this study.  $^{40} \rm See$  Introduction, Gary and its Population, p. 7.

titutes included in their numbers, and to the fact that most of the houses of prostitution were located on the South Side.

The Americans and Old Immigration show a little over half as many living on the North Side as on the South Side, while the Colored and New Immigration show a very small proportion living on the North Side and a very large proportion on the South Side.

Of the total numbers, 11.02 per cent live on the North Side and 56.97 per cent or over half the total number of cases live on the South Side. That is, as would be expected, the greatest numbers live in the part of Gary where are located the saloons, the houses of prostitution, bad housing conditions, bad sanitation, etc.

## 13. Industrial Status⁴¹

Two hundred ninety-four different businesses, occupations, or professions are given by the offenders in this study. These occupations are here classified in nine groups according to the character of the work and the wage or salary received. Group I includes the irregular, low-paid workers, chiefly women such as chambermaids, washerwomen, seamstresses, etc., wages \$4 to \$6 a week or 20 to 25 ceats an hour. Group II includes small independent businesses such as junk dealers, fruit-stand keepers, scissors griaders, etc., where the income is small and indefinite. Group III includes the unskilled laborers, such as common laborers, janitors, loaders, drivers, porters, section hands, etc., where the wage is  $17\frac{1}{2}$  cents to 24 cents an hour, \$2.90 to \$3 a day, \$18 to \$20 a week, and \$30 to \$75 a month. Group IV includes the semi-skilled workers, such as bottom makers, chippers, drill press hands, handymen, heater helpers, roller helpers, riggers, stockers, etc., where the wage is \$3 to \$5 a day of from 10 to 12 hours, and \$75 to \$105 a month. Group V includes skilled workers, such as axle makers, brick layers, catchers, coopers, coremakers, electricians, stationary engineers, hammersmiths, heaters, plumbers, rollers, steamfitters, telegraph operators, etc., where the wage is 29 cents to 75 cents an hour, \$3.15 to \$8 a day, \$12 to \$25 a week, and \$70 to \$200 (assistant rollers and straighteners) and \$300 (rollers) a month, 10 to 12 hours a day. Group VI includes professional men such as attorneys, correspondents, physicians, musicians, lecturers, editors, etc., where no wage, salary, or income can be specified. Group VII

⁴¹Original tables, pp. 155–159. See Preface to this study. See also Appendix, Table VI.

includes business men, such as cashiers, collectors, contractors, grocers, manufacturers, merchants, tailors, etc., where no wage, salary, or income can be specified. Group VIII includes those engaged in agriculture, as farmers, farm hands, etc., where no wage, salary, or income can be specified. Another group would include those engaged in miscellaneous occupations and occupations where information is too indefinite to make a classification, as beggar, officer, student, axle mill, dynametic, fisherman, railroader, sheet mill, steel mill, etc., where no wage or salary can be specified; a classification left out of this study as too indefinite to be of any practical value.

This classification as to character of work and the verification of wage or salary is based on information given by labor foremen in some of the industrial plants in Gary, according to labor conditions prevailing in Gary at the time of the investigation.

Arranging the cases in this study according to the occupational grouping given above and race or nationality group and sex, in group I, irregular, low-paid work, of total numbers of both sexes the Colored show by far the greatest proportion, followed in order by the Old Immigration, the Americans, and the New Immigration. Of the females in this occupational group, the New Immigration shows the highest relative proportion followed in order by the American, the Old Immigration, and the Colored.

In occupational group II, small independent business, of total numbers of both sexes, the New Immigration shows the highest relative proportions (due to the large number of Jews from countries of the New Immigration in this group) followed in order by the Americans, the Old Immigration, and the Colored.

In occupational group III, unskilled labor, the New Immigration shows by far the highest relative proportion, followed in order by the Colored, the Old Immigration, and the Americans.

In occupational group IV, semi-skilled work, the Old Immigration show the highest relative proportion, followed in order by the Americans, the New Immigration, and the Colored.

In occupational group V, skilled work, the Americans and Old Immigration show by far the highest relative proportion, followed in order by the New Immigration and the Colored.

In occupational group VI, professions, the Americans show the highest proportional numbers, followed in order by the Colored, the Old Immigration, and the New Immigration.

In occupational group VII, business mea, the New Immigration shows the highest relative proportion (due to the num-

ber of Jews and Greeks) followed in order by the Americans, the Old Immigration, and the Colored.

In occupational group VIII, agriculture, the Americans show the highest relative proportion, followed in order by the Old Immigration and the New Immigration, the Colored showing no cases.

The examination of the cases arranged in this way shows that in general the New Immigration and the Colored cases belong to occupational classes much lower in the scale than the American and Old Immigration cases.

Of the total numbers, by far the highest proportion, almost half of the total, belong to the group of unskilled laborers, followed in order by the skilled laborers, the low-paid irregular workers, business men, semi-skilled workers, small independent business men, agricultural workers, and fewest in the group of professional men. The first five groups include 82.05 per cent, over three-fourths of the total numbers. That is, the great majority of the cases belong to occupational groups low in the scale.

#### SECTION II42

Section II of this study of adult crime in Gary consists of 965 cases coming into the justice of the peace courts from 1910 to 1913 inclusive, a period of four years.⁴³ In the material used for this study information as to single race or nationality unit or race or nationality group is not given, but the material is based on color and nativity, that is, cases are listed as colored and white, native born and foreign born.

Arranging these cases according to color and nativity, the foreign born show the highest absolute numbers, followed by the native born, the Colored showing very few absolute numbers. Roughly comparing the proportion which each color and nativity group furnishes to the total amount of crime in this study with the proportion which each color and nativity group furnishes to the general population of Gary, the figures indicate that the foreign born bear more than their fair share of offenders, the native born less, and the Colored less.⁴⁴

Comparing the proportion of foreign born offenders in this study in Gary with that of foreign born prisoners enumerated in

 $^{^{42}\}mathrm{Original}$  tables, pp. 160–167. See Preface to this study. See also Appendix, Table VII.

⁴³See p. 43 of this study. ⁴⁴See this study, p. 45, for sources of error in comparison.

the United States, June 30, 1904, and with that of prisoners committed to institutions in the United States during 1904⁴⁵ Gary shows a much higher proportion of foreign born offenders. This difference may be due somewhat to the fact that the figures for the United States include only the offenses in which there were commitments, while this study includes many offenses in which no sentence is imposed, and many minor offenses in which in general the foreign born exceed the native born.

Arranging the cases according to types of offense, in offenses against the person the foreign born show the greatest relative proportions; in offenses against property the foreign born also show slightly greater relative proportions; but in offenses against society the native born show highest relative proportions.

Arranging these cases according to kind of offense and sex, in offenses against the person and against property the males exceed the females; but in offenses against society the females far exceed the males, due to the large number of females offending against chastity and morality.

#### SECTION III46

Section III of the study of adult crime in Gary consists of 87 cases, the more serious cases coming into the criminal courts from Gary 1910 to 1915 inclusive, cases in which sentences were given for imprisonment in the Indiana State Prison at Michigan City, the Indiana Reformatory at Jeffersonville, or the Woman's Prison at Indianapolis.⁴⁷

Arranging these cases according to race or nationality group, the Americans show the greatest absolute numbers followed in order by the New Immigration, the Colored, and the Old Immigration.

Comparing the proportions which each race or nationality group furnishes to the total amount of crime to the proportion which that race or nationality group furnishes to the general population of Gary (roughly), the figures indicate that the American, the Colored, and the Old Immigration bear more than their proportional share of these more serious crimes, and the New Immigration much less.

Specific kinds of offenses represented in this study are: assault and battery with intent to kill, felonious assault and rape, murder,

 ⁴⁸ U.S. Census, 1910, Vol. I, Population, p. 568; Koren, p. 40.
 48 Original tables, pp. 168-173. See Preface to this study. See also Appendix, Tables VIII, IX.
 478 See p. 44 of this study for description of this group.

rape, robbery, petty larceny, grand larceny, burglary, forgery, false pretense, sodomy, and bigamy. Arranging the cases according to classifications of offense and race or nationality group, offenses against chastity and morality show too few cases to offer any conclusions. Of offenses against the person the Colored show the highest relative proportion, followed by the Americans and New Immigration in almost equal proportions, the Old Immigration showing no cases. Of offenses against property the New Immigration shows the highest relative proportions followed in order by the Americans, the Old Immigration, and the Colored.

Arranging these cases according to age groups and race or nationality groups, the Americans show the greatest number of cases in the age period 16 to 19, the Colored 25 to 29, the Old Immigration 20 to 24, and the New Immigration 20 to 24. The greatest number of cases of all races or nationalities occur from 16 to 34 years inclusive.

Only 6 cases of females are shown in this study, 3 Americans and 3 Colored. Of these cases, 3 are for grand larceny, 2 for bigamy, and one for murder. One is 20 years of age, two 24 years, one 30, one 32, and one 36.

#### SECTION IV48

Section IV of this study of adult crime in Gary consists of 36 cases, the less serious cases coming into the criminal courts from Gary, 1910 to 1915 inclusive, cases in which sentences were commitments to the Lake County Jail, the Indiana State Penal Farm, or the Correctional Department of the Indiana Woman's Prison.⁴⁹

Arranging these cases according to race or nationality group, the New Immigration shows the highest absolute numbers followed in order by the Old Immigration, the Colored, and the American.

Roughly comparing the relative proportion which each race or nationality group furnishes to the total amount of crime in this study to the proportion which that race or nationality furnishes to the general population of the United States, the New Immigration and the Colored appear to show more than their proportional amount of crime, and the Old Immigration and the Americans less.

⁴⁸Original tables, pp. 174–179. See Preface to this study. See also Appendix, Tables X, XI.
⁴⁹See p. 44 of this study for description of this group.

Specific kinds of offenses represented in this study are assault and battery with intent to kill, felonious assault and battery, robbery, petty larceny, grand larceny, burglary, forgery, false pretense, embezzlement, sodomy, and bigamy. Arranging the cases according to classification of offenses and race or nationality group, of offenses against the person the Colored show the highest relative proportions followed in order by the Old Immigration, the Americans, and the New Immigration. Of offenses against property, the New Immigration shows the highest relative proportions, followed in order by the Old Immigration, the Americans, and the Colored. Two-thirds of all the cases are offenses against property and only one-fourth against the person. Offenses against society are very few in number.

Arranging the cases according to age groups, the greatest number of cases of all races or nationalities appear in the age group 20 to 29 years.

Only one case of a female appears in this study, one Colored woman for assault and battery.

# V. Conclusion

Consistent with the conclusion in the Special Report of the United States Census on Prisoners and Juvenile Delinquents in 1904 for the United States as a whole, this study of juvenile delinquency and adult crime in Gary shows that the Americans and the Old Immigration do bear more than their proportional share of more serious adult crime, but less than their proportional share of juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime; the New Immigration bears less than its proportional share of the more serious adult crimes, but more than its proportional share of juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime; and the Colored bear more than their proportional share of juvenile delinquency and both petty and more serious adult crimes; that is, the unfavorable relation which the races or nationalities of the New Immigration and the Colored race bear to juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime established for the United States as a whole, including both rural and urban communities, holds true also for Gary, a single urban community.

Some of the associations of juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime given in this study bear also a certain direct or indirect relation to economic and social class, while certain others have nothing to do with economic and social class. For example, such an association as housing conditions bears a very definite relation to economic and social class, while such an association as age bears little relation, if any, for practically the same ages are found in all classes.

In this study those associations of juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime which bear a relation to economic and social class are: in juvenile delinquency, the disposition of the case, repetition of offense, physical and mental abnormality, bad associates, geographical distribution of cases, housing conditions, family life, and the industrial status of the family; in adult crime, illiteracy, geographical distribution, and industrial status. These associations of juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime, taken together, are sufficient to indicate quite definitely the economic and social classes from which juvenile and petty adult offenders in Gary are recruited.

In juvenile delinquency the disposition of the case is based on the relation of the child to his environment. Commitments to institutions indicate in a general way that the environment is such that no hope of success is offered by returning the child to it. Such an environment is a characteristic accompaniment of low economic and social class. Of the total number of cases of juvenile delinquents in this study, 32.3 per cent are committed to institutions. To this group the New Immigration contributes 48.3 per cent of its number, and the American and Old Immigration only 7.4 per cent and 25.0 per cent of their respective numbers. That is, a high per cent of all the cases come from a highly unfavorable environment, and a higher relative proportion of the New Immigration comes from the unfavorable environment than of the Americans and the Old Immigration.

Repetition of offense indicates an environment so unfavorable that cases returned to it must fail. In this study, 18.6 per cent of the total number of juvenile delinquents are second offenders, and of these cases the New Immigration furnishes 26.6 per cent of its numbers, and the American and Old Immigration 7.4 per cent and 12.5 per cent respectively. Here again is shown the high per cent of all the cases living in an unfavorable environment, with a higher relative proportion of the New Immigration than of the Americans and the Old Immigration.

A high proportion of subnormal physical and mental qualities accompanies low economic and social class. Of the cases of juvenile delinquents in this study, 24.5 per cent are clearly subnormal physically or mentally, and of this number the New Immigration and the Colored furnish 28.3 per cent and 28.57 per cent of their respective total numbers, while the Americans and Old Immigration furnish 18.51 per cent and 12.5 per cent respectively. That is, a high proportion of all the cases show clearly those subnormal physical and mental qualities quite generally accompanying low economic and social class, and of these the New Immigration and the Colored show higher relative proportions than the Americans and the Old Immigration.

Illiteracy depends to a large extent on conditions other than economic and social class, but since it is seldom found to any extent in the higher economic and social classes, for the purpose here it may be considered an accompaniment of low economic class. In this study in petty adult crime, 35.7 per cent of the total number are illiterate; and of this number the New Immigration and the Colored furnish 59.1 per cent and 16.8 per cent

of their respective total numbers, while the Americans and the Old Immigration furnish 1.2 per cent and 8.5 per cent respectively. That is, of the total number, a high proportion is illiterate, and of these the New Immigration and the Colored show higher relative proportions than the American and the Old Immigration.

In juvenile delinquency, many of the New Immigration cases show specifically associations with persons of a low moral character; associations against which children of a higher social and economic class would be protected.

In every community the district in which the population lives indicates very clearly the economic and social classes in the population. In the introductory study of Gary and its population, the South Side is described in general as the poorest part of the city; that is, the part characterized by saloons, houses of prostitution, crowded unsanitary conditions, lack of order, and poor living conditions in general. The North Side is described in general as the best part of the city; that is, the part characterized by regulation, order in planning and in building, good housing conditions, good streets, good sanitary conditions, and only 2 saloons. Of the juvenile delinquents in this study, 59.30 per cent of the families live on the South Side; and of these the New Immigration and the Colored show 88.46 per cent and 66.66 per cent of their respective numbers; while the Americans and the Old Immigration show 9.09 per cent and none of their respective numbers. Of petty adult offenders, 56.97 per cent live on the South Side; and of these the New Immigration and the Colored furnish 71.49 per cent and 85.78 per cent of their respective total numbers: and the Americans and Old Immigration only 20.16 per cent and 23.04 per cent respectively. That is, of all the cases of both juvenile delinquents and petty adult offenders a very high proportion live in the poorer district of the city, and of these the New Immigration and the Colored show very much higher relative proportions than the Americans and the Old Immigration.

In juvenile delinquency, the housing conditions are those of the lower economic and social classes. The average rental per family is \$15.97 a month, an abnormally high rental in consideration of the comforts received therefor. The average number of rooms to a family is 4.01; the New Immigration and the Colored average 3.54 and 2 rooms to a family respectively, the Americans and the Old Immigration 4.92 and 5.6 rooms to a family despite the fact of the smaller number in the families of the latter. The average rental paid per room is \$4.21; the New Immigration and the Colored paying an average of \$3.31 and \$4.25 a room, respectively, the Americans and Old Immigration paying \$5.62 and \$3.68 a room, the differences in price by no means measuring the differences in comforts received.

In juvenile delinquency, the conditions of home life are those of the lower economic and social classes. Of the total number, 87.2 per cent show very unfavorable home conditions. Of these the New Immigration and the Colored show 88.46 per cent and 100 per cent of their respective numbers, and the Americans and Old Immigration 81.81 per cent and 83.33 per cent respectively. That is, of all the cases a very high per cent show quite unfavorable home conditions, and of these the New Immigration and the Colored show somewhat higher relative proportions than the Americans and the Old Immigration.

Industrial status bears perhaps the most definite relation to economic and social class. In juvenile delinquency 10.46 per cent of the parents are engaged in low-paid, irregular work, 41.86 per cent in unskilled labor, and 30.23 per cent in skilled labor. In group I, low-paid, irregular work, the New Immigration and the Colored furnish 11.51 per cent and 16.66 per cent of their respective numbers, and the Americans and Old Immigration 9.0 per cent and none of their numbers respectively; in group II, unskilled labor, the New Immigration and the Colored furnish 59.61 per cent and 50.0 per cent of their respective numbers, and the Americans and Old Imigration 4.5 per cent and 16.67 per cent respectively; in group III, skilled labor, the New Immigration and the Colored furnish 7.69 per cent and none of their respective numbers, and the Americans and the Old Immigration 81.82 per cent and 66.66 per cent respectively.

In petty adult crime, 8.51 per cent are engaged in irregular low-paid work, 2.63 per cent in small businesses, 48.72 per cent in unskilled labor, 3.46 per cent in semi-skilled labor, 18.73 per cent in skilled labor, 0.52 per cent in professions, 3.59 per cent in business, and 0.56 per cent in agriculture. In group I, irregular low-paid work, the New Immigrants and the Colored show 5.01 per cent and 25.59 per cent of their respective numbers, and the Americans and the Old Immigration 7.4 per cent and 7.65 per cent respectively; in group II, small businesses, the New Immigration and the Colored show 2.99 per cent and 1.29 per cent of their respective numbers, and the American and Old Immigration 2.05 per cent and 1.70 per cent respectively; in

98

group III, unskilled labor, the New Immigration and the Colored show 63.54 per cent and 50.38 per cent of their respective numbers, and the American and Old Immigration 19.95 per cent and 29.36 per cent respectively; in group IV, semi-skilled labor, the New Immigration and the Colored show 2.99 per cent and 1.55 per cent of their respective numbers, and the American and Old Immigration 4.73 per cent and 5.10 per cent respectively: in group V, skilled labor, the New Immigration and the Colored show 12.04 per cent and 10.85 per cent of their respective numbers, and the Americans and Old Immigration show 35.18 per cent and 32.34 per cent respectively; in group VI, the professions, the New Immigration and the Colored show 0.24 per cent and 0.77 per cent of their respective numbers, and the Americans and Old Immigration 1.23 per cent and 0.63 per cent respectively: in group VII, business, the New Immigration and the Colored show 4.64 per cent and 1.03 per cent of their respective numbers, and the Americans and Old Immigration 3.08 per cent and 2.12 per cent respectively; ia group VIII, agriculture, the New Immigration and the Colored show 0.30 per cent and none of their respective numbers, and the Americans and Old Immigration 1.85 per cent and 0.63 per cent respectively. These figures show that the great majority of cases of juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime are industrial workers; and of these the greatest number belong low in the industrial scale. The figures also show that the New Immigration and the Colored cases belong lower in the industrial scale than the Americans and Old Immigration.

These considerations show that in every case where the associations of juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime given in this study indicate, in any way, economic and social class, they indicate low economic and social class; and that in every case the New Immigration and the Colored are farther down in the scale than the American and the Old Immigration. The unfavorable environment of the juvenile delinquents, the subnormal physical and mental qualities of the juvenile delinquents, the great number of illiterates among the petty adult offenders, the low associates of the juvenile delinquents, the crowded, unsanitary districts of the city from which both juvenile delinquents and petty adult offenders come, the bad housing conditions and unfavorable home conditions of the juvenile delinquents, the low industrial status of both juvenile delinquents

and petty adult offenders—all these are also associations of low economic and social class. Also in every case these conditions are more unfavorable in the New Immigration and Colored than in the American and Old Immigration.

That is, juvenile delinquents and petty adult offenders in Gary are recruited from the lower economic and social classes; and of these the New Immigration and the Colored occupy positions in the scale lower than the Americans and the Old Immigration. So that a greater amount of juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime must be expected in the two former race or nationality groups—a conclusion which is borne out by the actual facts.

It is unfair then in juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime in Gary to compare the New Immigration and the Colored, consisting chiefly of the lower economic and social classes, with the Americans and the Old Immigration including all social and economic classes because the unfavorable relation of the races or nationalities of the New Immigration, and to a certain extent that of the Colored race, to juvenile delinquency and petty adult crime is determined not by the race or nationality group, but by the social and economic class to which these races or nationalities belong.

# VI. Appendix

#### 1. Tables

A few of the most important tables in the study as originally prepared are included in this Appendix. 1 

Table I. A, Cases and Families of Juvenile Delinquents in Gary, 1912-14, Arranged According to Single Race or Nationality UNITS by Number and Per Cent; B, the Same Arranged According to Race or Nationality GROUP

A

	Nun	nber	Per	Cent
Nationality or Race	Family	Case	Family	Case
1. American 2. Colored 3. Croatian 4. German 5. Hungarian 6. Irish 7. Italian 8. Lithuanian 9. Polish 10. Russian 11. Servian 12. Slavish	22 6 6 4 7 2 3 4 16 2 1 13	27 7 7 6 7 2 4 4 21 2 1	25.6 7.0 7.0 4.6 8.1 2.3 3.5 4.6 18.7 2.3 1.2	26.5 6.9 6.9 5.9 6.9 1.9 3.9 20.6 1.9 1.0
	В			
1. American	22 6 6 52	27 7 8 60	25.6 7.0 6.9 60.5	26.5 6.9 7.8 58.8
Totals	86	102	100.0	100.0

¹ See Preface to this study.

Table II. A, Cases of Juvenile Delinquents in Gary, 1912–14, Arranged According to Kind of Offense and Single Race or Nationality UNIT by Number; B, the Same by Race or Nationality GROUP

A

A												
	A	gain	ıst S	ocie	ty	Agai th Pe so	.e r-		A Pro	gair per	nst ty	Others
Nationality or Race			A	lgain Mora	1							
	Incorrigibility	Confirmed Truancy	Vicious Gang	Immoral Girls	Obscene Language, Indecent Conduct	Rape	Assault	Railroad Trespass	Petit Larceny	Breaking In	Destroying School Property	City Ordinance
1. American 2. Colored 3. Croatian 4. German 5. Hungarian 6. Irish 7. Italian 8. Lithuanian 9. Polish 10. Russian 11. Servian 12. Slavish	6 2 1 2	4  3 5  1  5	4	6 2 1 2	1	1	1	3	3 4  3 2 9 2	1	3	2
			В					,				
1. American 2. Colored 3. Old Immigration 4. New Immigration	6 4 1	3 19	4	6 2 3	42	1 	1	3	3 29	2	3	2  
Total	11	_ <del>26</del>	4	11	6	1	1	3	32	2	3	2

Table III. A, Families of Juvenile Delinquents in Gary, 1912–14, Arranged According to Industrial Groups and Single Race or Nationality UNIT by Number; B, Arranged According to Race or Nationality GROUP by Per Cent

Nationality or Race	I Low- Paid Irregu- lar	II Com- mon Labor	III Skilled Labor	Not Given	Miscel- laneous	Per Cent
1. American	2	1	18	1		
2. Colored	1	3		2		
3. Croatian	1	3		2		
4. German		1	3			
5. Hungarian		7				
6. Irish			1	1		
7. Italian	1	1	1			
8. Lithuanian		2		1	1	
9. Polish	3	10		1	2	
0. Russian		1			1	
1. Servian		1				
2. Slavish	1	6	3	3		
Total	9	36	26	11	4	

В

1. American	16.66	4.5 50.0 16.67 59.61	81.82 66.66 7.69	4.5 33.34 16.67 13.4	7.72	100 100 100 100
Totals			30.23		4.64	100

Table IV. A. Cases of Offenders in Section I of the Study of Crime in Gary in 1914 Arranged According to Single Race or Nationality UNIT by Number and Per Cent; B, Arranged According to Race or Nationality GROUP and Per Cent

Nationality or Race	Number	Per Cent
1. Albanian	3	0.10
2. American	486	16.03
3. Arabian	1	0.03
4. Armenian	1	0.03
5. Austrian	197	6.50
6. Belgian	2	0.07
7. Bohemian	16	0.53
8. Bulgarian	7	0.23
9. Canadian	6	0.20
10. Chinese	7	0.23
11. Colored	387	12.77
12. Croatian	69	2.27
13. Cuban	1	0.03
14. Danish	5	0.17
15. English	25	0.82
16. Finn	2	0.07
17. French	13	0.43
18. German	143	4.72
19. Greek	76	2.51
20. Hollander.	$\frac{2}{2}$	0.07
21. Horoat	22	0.72
22. Hungarian	100	3.30
23. Indian	1	0.03
24. Irish	180	5.94
25. Italian	$\frac{71}{2}$	2.34
26. Japanese	2	0.07
27. Jewish	69 1	2.28
28. Korean	85	$ \begin{array}{c c} 0.03 \\ 2.80 \end{array} $
29. Lithuanian	11	0.36
30. Macedonian	4	0.30
32. Norwegian.	6	0.13
33. Persian	7	0.20
34. Polish.	331	10.92
35. Roumanian	141	4.65
36. Russian.	210	6.93
37. Ruthenian	1	0.03
38. Scotch.	20	0.66
39. Scotch Irish.	3	0.10
40. Servian.	115	3.79
41. Slavish	104	3.43
42. Slovak	5	0.17
43. Spanish	5	0.17
44. Swedish	59	1.95
45. Swiss	1	0.03
46. Syrian	9	0.30
47. Welsh	6	0.20
Not given	13	0.43
773 . 1	0.001	100.00
Total	3,031	100.00

#### Table IV.—Continued

В

Number	Fer Cent
	12.77 15.51 53.94 .92 .40

Table V. Cases of Offenders in Section I of the Study of Crime in Gary in 1914 arranged according to kind of Offense and Race or Nationality GROUP by Per Cent

Nationality or Race	Total Crime	Against the Person	Against Property	Against Chastity and Morality	Against Public Policy
1. American 2. Colored 3. Old Immigration 4. New Immigration 5. Asiatic Immigration 6. Other Americans	16.03 12.77 15.51 53.94 0.92 0.40	9.14 8.02 8.58 72.94	9.21 12.62 9.82 67.17	19.31 27.87 16.87 34.47	
Not given	0.43	100.00		100.00	

Table VI. Cases of Offenders in Section I of the Study of Crime in Gary Arranged According to Industrial Classes and Race or Nationality GROUP by Per Cent²

									Т	tal
Nationality or Race	I	111	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	No.	Per Cent
1. American	7.4	2.05	19.95	4.73	35.18	1.23	3.08	1.85	486	100
2. Colored					10.85		1.03		387	100
3. Old Immigration	7.65	1.70	29.36	5.10	22.34	0.63	2.12	0.63	470	100
4. New Immigration	5.01	2.99	63.54	2.99	12.04	0.24	4.64	0.30	1635	100
5. Asiatic Immigra-										
$tion^3$									28	100
6. Other Americans ³									12	100
7. All races or nationalities	8.51	2.63	48.72	18.73	18.74	0.52	3.59	0.56	3031	100

TABLE VII. CASES OF OFFENDERS IN SECTION II OF THE STUDY OF CRIME IN GARY ARRANGED ACCORDING TO NATIVITY AND KIND OF OFFENSE BY PER CENT

	Native Born	Foreign Born	Unknown
Against the person Against property Against society ⁴ All others	23.11 $6.22$ $46.22$ $24.45$	35.64 $9.25$ $36.72$ $16.82$	39.13 5.43 42.39 13.05
Totals	100.00	100.00	100.00

² Class I, irregular low-paid work, wages \$4 to \$6 a week; class II, small independent businesses (as junk dealer), income small and indefinite; class III. unskilled laborers, wages 17½ cents to 24 cents an hour; class IV, semi-skilled workers, wages \$3 to \$5 a day; class V, skilled workers, wages \$3.15 to \$8 a day; class VI, professional men; class VII, business men; class VIII, agricultural workers.

³ Numbers too small for calculation.

⁴ Includes offenses against chastity and morality and against public policy.

Table VIII. Cases of Offenders in Section III of the Study of Crime in Gary Arranged According to Race or Nationality GROUP by Number and Per Cent

	Number	Per Cent
American	31	35.63 18.39
ColoredOld ImmigrationNew Immigration	$   \begin{array}{c}     16 \\     9 \\     25   \end{array} $	18.39 10.34 28.74
Asiatic Immigration	2 2 3	2.29
Not given	1	1.15
Totals	87	100.00

Table IX. Cases of Offenders in Section III of the Study of Crime in Gary Arranged According to Race or Nationality GROUP and Kind of Offense by Number and Per Cent

Nationality or Race	1	ainst the erson	_	ainst perty	Cha aı	inst stity ad ality		scel- eous	То	tal
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
American. Colored. Old Immigration. New Immigration. Asiatic Immigration. Other Americans.	10 8 1	32.25 62.5  32.0 50.0 66.66	5 4 16	45.16 31.25 44.44 64.00	1 2 		6 3 1 1		31 16 9 25 2 3	100 100 100 100 100

Table X. Cases of Offenders in Section IV of the Study of Crime in Gary Arranged According to Race or Nationality GROUP by Number and Per cent

	Number	Per Cent	
American Colored Old Immigration New Immigration	4 6 6 7 19	11.11 16.67 19.44 52.78	
Total	36	100.00	

Table XI. Cases of Offenders in Section IV of the Study of Crime in Gary Arranged According to Race or Nationality *GROUP* and Kind of Offense by Per Cent

	Against the Person		Against Property		Against Chastity and Morality		Total	
	Num-	Per	Num-	Per	Num-	Per	Num-	Per
	ber	Cent	ber	Cent	ber	Cent	ber	Cent
American	1	25.0	2	50.00	1	25.0	4	100
Colored	2-1	50.0	2	33.33	1	16.67	6	100
Old Immigration	3	42.85	4	57.15			7	100
New Immigration	2	10.52	16	84.21	1	5.27	19	100
Total	9	25.00	24	66.67	3	8.33	36	100

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(This bibliography is not meant to be complete in any of the subjects related to this study but is a list of those publications found most useful in preparing this study.)

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# INDIANA UNIVERSITY STUDIES





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WILLIAM DE MORGAN AND THE GREATER EARLY VICTORIANS. By WILL T. HALE, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of English, Indiana University.

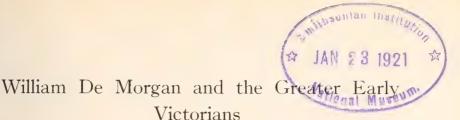
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As soon as the critics began their work on William De Morgan. they discovered at once that he was a "belated Early Victorian". "The most interesting phenomenon in recent fiction", observed one of these, "is the recrudescence of the old-fashioned novel of the Dickens and Thackeray type thru the single-handed efforts of William De Morgan". And another, speaking of him as if he were a counterfeiter, declared, "He needs defenders. He writes a novel according to the Victorian tradition, hardly as a master, but as the cleverest of disciples."2

It cannot be denied that in some important respects De Morgan resembles the Early Victorians more closely than the writers of today.3 His novels have more pages than the general run of the best-sellers — and this fact has proved a stumbling-block to most of the reviewers. After some favorable criticism of Alice-for-Short. one of them has objected, "But the book contains five hundred and sixty pages" - as if the Supreme Court had definitely decided the exact number of pages a book should contain. Another has designated Somehow Good as "a long, leisurely, and garrulous novel", and added that the author "does not seem to be aware of the custom prevailing among the patrons of free libraries of selecting a book according to the number of quotation marks seen on a page".5

Indeed, it must be confessed that none of this novelist's works are suitable for those persons who must finish a book at one sitting, and more appropriate literature could be suggested for reading on the street cars or Pullmans. These wonderful books

^{*}Independent, Feb. 13, 1908, p. 369.

**Literary Digest, Aug. 24, 1907, p. 272.

*This is not true in the case of An Affair of Dishonor, which, being a historical romance, is essentially different from the rest of De Morgan's works. In this paper this novel will not be considered except in those cases where it conforms to the rest of the author's novels.

*Atheneum, July 6, 1907, p. 10.

*Independent, Feb. 13, 1908, p. 370.

were made for the Morris chair at home, when the wind howls outside and all is snug within, and we have time for the real luxury of reading. They are longer than the average novel today, it is true, but, except When Ghost Meets Ghost, they fall short of many of the Early Victorian volumes⁶ — which some people still find time to read. Their size can be justified, however, without recourse to these precedents. In the first place, De Morgan's humor and charming personality sustain the interest thruout. Instead of sighing with relief at the end, we wish that we had more to read. We are sorry that the author has quit speaking, for he is one to whom we could listen all night, and we hate to see the last of the people we have come to know so intimately and to love so dearly. Even When Ghost Meets Ghost, with its eight hundred and sixty-two closely printed pages, we close with regret, for the Mrs. Pictur and Uncle Mo are dead, we could listen to David and Dolly Wardle thru another volume equally long.

In the second place, an author's purpose should determine the length of his books. De Morgan's aim is obviously to represent life with the highest degree of verisimilitude. Therefore, since the highest degree of verisimilitude is produced by the inclusion of a large section of life and a considerable number of years, he has needed more than the usual number of pages to accomplish his purpose. In each of his first three novels, which most people consider his best works, he has given a broad, extensive view of life embracing a generation. Joseph Vance extends over three generations. In doing this, he has followed the Early Victorian tradition — and rightly, for in spite of the tiresome effect often due to the exaggeration of this principle by the Victorians, it contributes in no small degree to that vivid impression of life that they produce. The modern tendency in fiction is the impressionistic and intensive, in which the author aims to focus the reader's attention in one direction, to direct his eve to one central object in the picture, to give a concentrated impression of a single thing. This method, which includes a short time, naturally requires fewer pages than the epic style of the Early Victorians. Within a smaller volume the modern novelist gives a sharp, clear-cut.

Thackeray's Newcomes and Virginians, Dickens' David Copperfield, etc., and

⁶Thackeray's Newcomes and Virginians, Dickens' David Copperfield, etc., and George Eliot's Middlemarch and Daniel Deronda, which are approximately the same size, contain about 800 pages. Joseph Vance has 528 pages, Alice-for-Short 563, Somehow Good 565, It Never Can Happen Again 688. An Affair of Dishonor 528, A Likely Story 370, When Ghost Meets Ghost 862, The Old Madhouse 567.

Their abuse of this principle was due to various reasons; for example, the exigencies of serial publication led Dickens and Thackeray on and on, and the subordination of George Eliot's artistic sense to her fondness for preaching and soulanalysis warped a great deal of her work out of its true proportions. Their principle, however, was a true one, and the fact that they carried it to extremes does not invalidate it.

magnified description of a minute part of life, and his work has many excellent qualities wanting in that of his predecessors, but he fails to give their elemental, universal impression of life.

In the third place, since De Morgan is primarily interested in people, characterization is the fundamental thing with him. But a character seems most vivid and distinct in the process of development. Therefore, in order to have sufficient time for the development of his characters, and to add the necessary details of atmosphere and perspective, he had to make his volumes large.

Again, it has been complained. William De Morgan has the Early Victorian fondness for leisurely procedure. Thus says one reviewer of Joseph Vance: "The book is written in the leisurely fashion. It suggests the talk of an intelligent man who has something to say, and all night in which to say it." Another, speaking for modern fiction, has laid down this law: "The author must go ahead in a straight line, like an express train, never looking back at what happened before, never looking around to see what other people are doing, never allowing the reader to guess what is going to happen next." This is exactly the opposite of what De Morgan has done: an express train is the last thing on earth which he does move like. His modus operandi resembles rather a loaded van attempting an ascent and sliding back as rapidly as it ascends. This, however, is one of his finest characteristics, tho a trait borrowed directly from his predecessors. The modern author holds himself aloof from his pages; he is unobstrusive, like the teller of the ballad; he is omniscient and omnipresent, but he wears the cap of Fortunatus. De Morgan, like Dickens and Thackeray and George Eliot, projects his personality into his stories. He may sit at one side, and we may forget him for a moment, but we know that he is there. In his comments on his characters' conversations, his shrewd observation of their peculiarities, his original moralizings, he belongs to the school of Dickens and Thackeray, and, like them, he is his craft's master. The following comments on their characters will show the close relation of these three authors.

De Morgan thus describes the attitude of Professor and Mrs. Sales Wilson to each other:

For a peculiarity in this family was that the two heads of its always spoke to one another through an agent. So clearly was this understood that direct speech between them, on its rare occasions, was always ascribed by

⁸Athenœum, July 28, 1906, p. 97. ⁹Independent, February 13, 1908, p. 369.

distant hearers to an outbreak of hostilities. If either speaker had addressed the other by name, the advent of the Sergeant-at-arms would have been the next thing looked for. 10

Dickens thus depicts Mrs. Pawkins' feelings at dinner time.

Great heaps of indigestible matter melted away as ice before the sun. It was a solemn and awful thing to see. Dyspeptic individuals bolted their food in wedges; feeding, not themselves, but broods of nightmares, who were continually standing at livery within them. Spare men, with lank and rigid cheeks, came out unsatisfied from the destruction of heavy dishes, and glared with watchful eyes on the pastry. What Mrs. Pawkins felt each day at dinner time is hidden from all human knowledge. But she had one comfort. It was very soon over. 11

Altho, on the whole, De Morgan seems closer to Dickens. Thackeray writes in the same vein:

We have all heard of the dying French Duchess, who viewed her coming dissolution and subsequent fate so easily, because she said she was sure that Heaven must deal politely with a person of her quality; — I suppose Lady Kew had some such notions regarding people of rank: her long-suffering towards them was extreme; in fact, there were vices which the old lady thought pardonable, and even natural, in a young nobleman of high station, which she would never have excused in persons of vulgar condition. 12

In commenting on his characters, our novelist avoids a fault that Thackeray often betrays. As we read the latter's works and enjoy those charming remarks which he makes so felicitously, we realize that his attitude is that of a showman to his puppets, and sometimes we see him pull the string that moves them. At the end of The Newcomes we find this flaw:

Two years ago, walking with my children in some pleasant fields, near to Berne, in Switzerland, I strayed from them into a little world; and, coming out of it presently, told them how the story had been revealed to me somehow, which for three-and-twenty months the reader has been pleased to follow. As I write the last line with a rather sad heart, Pendennis and Laura, and Ethel and Clive, fade away into Fable-land. I hardly know whether they are not true; whether they do not live near us somewhere.

They were alive, and I heard their voices; but five minutes since was touched by their grief.

Dickens' conclusion of David Copperfield has more of the atmosphere of reality:

And now my written story ends. I look back, once more — for the last time — before I close these leaves.

I see myself, with Agnes at my side, journeying along the road of life. I see our children and our friends around us; and I hear the roar of many voices, now indifferent to me as I travel on.

 ¹⁰Somehow Good, p. 155.
 ¹¹Martin Chuzzlewit, vol. I, chap. xvi.
 ¹²The Newcomes, vol. II, chap. xxii.

If, as some critics assert, Thackeray was a cynic and a snob, there De Morgan parts company with him. Our author is more like Dickens, big-hearted and catholic, even in dealing with small souls like Goody Vereker, or Lucy Snaith, or such villains as Thornton Daverill and his son. In the tones of his asides, 13 however, he resembles Thackeray rather than Dickens, for the former has a lighter touch and does not seem so serious. 14 Thus Thackeray often speaks as he draws the reader away from his story:

The true pleasure of life is to live with your inferiors. Be the cock of your village; the queen of your coterie; and, besides very great persons, the people whom Fate has specially endowed with this kindly consolation, are those who have seen what are called better days — those who have had losses. I am like Caesar, and of a noble mind: if I cannot be first in Piccadilly, let me try Hatton Garden, and see whether I cannot lead the ton there. 15

Dickens does not moralize so often as Thackeray, but when he does, he has an aside like this:

Breakings up are capital things in our school days, but in after life they are painful enough. Death, self-interest, and fortune's changes, are every day breaking up many a happy group, and scattering them far and wide; and the boys and girls never come back again.¹⁶

Our author omits the ye's and thou's that Thackeray so frequently employs. And in his asides he does not, like George Eliot, preach sermons. He reflects on life after this delightful manner:

There is nothing stranger in nature than the development of odiousness. What an entirely delightful person was * * * * * when he was eight months old, in all the bloom of his creases, furnished with a matchless nape to his neck in which his appreciators might bur ow; his premature baldness beginning to show a light down of premature hair; his premature arms that would not bend at the joints, being held by two firm but tender crease-flanks; and that always did precisely the same thing suddenly; his delightful practice of stopping abruptly at the end of the first syllable of speech. What an entirely satisfactory and adequate little human creature as far as it went! And look at it now that it has gone forty years farther. I ask you, at the risk of outrage to your feelings and Mrs. Grundy's, to say what you would do if * * * * * were fetched down now in his nightgown to be shown.¹⁷

Self-help is a glorious thing, and one of our numerous birth-rights, but it should stop short of helping oneself to all of the gravy in the dish. 18

¹³By the "asides" is meant the moralizings and the like, in distinction from the comments on the characters.

¹⁴George Eliot's asides are heavier and more "theological", or didactic, than De Morgan's

De Morgan's.

15 The Newcomes, vol. I, chap. ix.
16 Pickwick Papers, chap. xxx.
17 Joseph Vance, p. 153.

One of the delightful things about these asides is their conformity to our own experience. We have thought the same thing many times ourselves — only we did not, and could not. "put it in his inimitable way. For example, look at these passages: What a singular thing it is, when you come to think of it, that so many speople will sell you a thing worth a pound for sixpence, who won't give you a shilling outright on any terms!¹⁹

Have you not yourself been interrupted again and again in your narrative of your symptoms by your friend's anxiety to give details of his own; or indeed (if he was Mrs. Packles) to lay claim to afflictions precisely identical but of greater severity?²⁰

In this way the most harmless little fib will grow and grow, and become an infliction to its papa or mamma, who will have to nourish and protect it as though it were truly the apple of their eye.²¹

We have all seen "strangers converse freely and unbend at a Fire or a really satisfactory Accident, with loss of life".22 have all experienced this waitress: "She had on orderly soul, for she turned over the lump of sugar that had a little butter on it. so as to lie on the buttery side and look more tidy-like."²³ When De Morgan delays his narrative with such charming revelations of his personality, we do not care how leisurely he proceeds, for, like Dickens and Thackeray, he is at his best when moving slowly. However, when, in the fashion that George Eliot started, he begins to indulge in lengthy, protracted analyses of the minds and motives of his characters, he strays from his best — for, as one critic has remarked of George Eliot, "The reading of her later works is scarce to be classed among the pleasures of life; it is one of the duties; there is so much to learn in them."24 If she influenced him at all, this fondness for psychological analysis represents the extent of her influence upon him. Dickens and Thackeray show no signs of it. The former, on the whole, confines himself to the external aspects of his characters; the latter informs us as to the mental stages which his people have reached, but does not show the processes by which they got there. Traces of George Eliot's method appear in all of De Morgan's novels. In It Never Can Happen Again we certainly grow very tired of Alfred Challis and his "soul-brushings". Who cares to be kept informed in regard to so uninteresting a person? Much rather would we hear Lizarann or her "daddy" talk. Nor in Alice-for-

¹º Somehow Good, p. 555. 2º Joseph Vance, pp. 101-102. 2º The Old Madhouse, p. 448. 2º Joseph Vance, p. 286. 2º When Ghost Meets Ghost, p. 2. 2º Charles F. Horne, The Technique of the Novel, p. 186.

Short is it the most exhibit aring of occupations to watch Charley Heath make up his mind to claim Alice for himself. Fine as he is in many ways, he is too slow for even the most Victorian of modern readers. It takes a long, long time for the two old ghosts, Mrs. Pictur and Mrs. Marrowbone, to meet and recognize each other again.²⁵ Fred Cartaret and Charles Snaith both take too much of our time considering their problems.²⁶ We feel somewhat the same sort of lassitude during Joe Vance's indecision over Janev.²⁷ and Rosalind Graythorpe's "nettle-grasping".²⁸ This is, undoubtedly, the worst fault that De Morgan has, and it is only when his leisurely procedure is due to it that we want him to move on.

De Morgan closely follows Dickens in the forewords that precede each chapter.²⁹ In this respect, Dickens differs from both Thackeray and George Eliot. Thackeray usually has a short tag on his chapters, as, "In which Lady Kew leaves his Lordship quite convalescent", 30 or, "Injured Innocence". 31 George Eliot has either a quotation of some sort 32 or an abbreviated announcement like Thackeray's shorter ones, 33 Dickens' labels, which are usually longer than those of either of these, are very original and very characteristic of the author. For example, this strikes our eve in Martin Chuzzlewit:

Martin enlarges his circle of acquaintance; increases his stock of wisdom; and has an excellent opportunity of comparing his own experiences with those of Lummy Ned of the Light Salisbury, as related by his friend Mr. William Simmons.34

In *Pickwick Papers* we find this:

Mr. Weller the Elder delivers some critical sentiments respecting literary composition; and assisted by his son Samuel, pays a small instalment of retaliation to the account of the reverend gentleman with the red nose.35

The first chapter of Joseph Vance has this announcement, which clearly marks a development from the method of Dickens:

Of Joe Vance's Father and his unfortunate habits. How he quarrelled with a sweep who could butt; and suffered thereby. How Joe concealed the circumstance from his mother.

²⁵ When Ghost Meets Ghost. ²⁶The Old Madhouse. ²⁷Joseph Vance. ²⁸Somehow Good.

²⁹Except in An Affair of Dishonor and The Old Madhouse. None occur in these

s.

*3°The Newcomes, vol. II, chap. xii.

*3'Ibid., vol. II, chap. xvi.

*3'In Daniel Deronda, Middlemarch, and Felix Holt.

*3'In The Mill on the Floss, Romola, and Adam Bede.

*4'Vol. I, chap. xvii.

*5'Chap. xxxiii.

One thing strikes us as very odd in De Morgan's procedure. Frequently he has made the tone of his announcements entirely out of harmony with the contents of the chapters; for instance, "And how old Vance got very drunk. Eheu!" and "Of Fenwick's surprise-bath in the British Channel".37 Both of these refer to very serious circumstances, little as it appears. Evidently he seeks humor in this way, but what humor he produces is very much out of place. In A Likely Story these forewords assume unwieldy lengths that are out of all proportion to the chapters that follow.38

De Morgan has none of the long descriptions that are characteristic of Dickens. He never gives us all at once on out-and-out description of a person or place, nor in describing his people does he enumerate their traits immediately. This portrait of Mr. Bob Sawver illustrates Dickens' usual method of accompanying the introduction of a new character with an invoice of all his external equipment:

Mr. Bob Sawyer, who was habited in a coarse blue coat, which, without being either a great-coat or a surtout, partook of the nature and qualities of both, had about him that sort of slovenly smartness, and swaggering gait, which is peculiar to young gentlemen who smoke in the streets by day, shout and scream in the same by night, call waiters by their Christian names, and do various other deeds and acts of an equally facetious description. He wore a pair of plaid trousers, and a large rough double-breasted waistcoat; out of doors, he carried a thick stick with a big top. He eschewed gloves, and looked, upon the whole, something like a dissipated Robinson Crusoe.39

De Morgan does not use this logical method, but treats his characters in a suggestive manner, giving the details gradually and casually. He follows the same in regard to their dispositions and peculiarities. We come to know his people gradually, just as in life. Herein lies the secret of the vivid impression that they make upon us. We become acquainted with them, as it were, instead of being told about them. His treatment of scenes and places is generally suggestive, also, the rarely he describes a place after the manner of Dickens; for example, the description of St. Sennans-on-Sea in Somehow Good. In the same volume he gives a picture of a London fog which reminds us of Dickens at the beginning of Bleak House. 41 Usually he gives only the

³⁶Joseph Vance, chap. xxx. ³⁷Somehow Good, chap. xlv.

²⁸Cf. A Likely Story, chaps. iii and vi. ³⁹Pickwick Papers, chap. xxx.

⁴⁰Chap. xxvii. 41Chap. xxiii.

necessary details, and unless they have a good deal of significance, especially as perspective, he omits them. George Eliot and a great many writers pack their incidents in a great deal of unnecessary wadding, but he seldom commits this offense

In certain respects De Morgan's stories, as stories, remind us of the Victorians. Like them, as we have seen, he is no impressionist, but writes his stories on a broad scale, and extends them over a great canvas. He does not confine himself to the study of a single situation or problem; almost without exception, his stories include many characters, a number of years, and varied scenes. Unlike the Victorians, he writes without a purpose. 42 He does not satirize society, like Thackeray, or reform abuses, like Dickens, or preach, like George Eliot.43 In his view of life and intellectual training, too, he belongs to the present time. His treatment of Rosalind and Sally in Somehow Good shows how far removed he stands from Hawthorne's Puritanism in The Scarlet Letter and Dickens' attitude toward Emily in David Copperfield. He has a modern view of women, to say the least: Alice-for-Short smokes a cigarette now and then. His treatment of ghosts conforms to modern notions.44 and he has this age's interest in psychical research. His theology, too, is up-to-date: Dr. Thorpe's belief concerning the hereafter, "the death of the ghost in the corpse", is the modern statement of the annihilation theory,45

Technically, De Morgan's stories have the weaknesses that we find in those of the Early Victorians, tho in a smaller degree. His plots lack probability. For instance, in Alice-for-Short and The Old Madhouse, the ghosts appear too often for real ghosts; in Joseph Vance Christopher Vance's rise to sudden fortune is more phenomenal than credible: 46 in Somehow Good the circumstances that result in Fenwick's return to his wife could hardly have happened. The explanation of Dr. Cartaret's disappearance, in The Old Madhouse, is rather melodramatic. Since, to our author. as to his great predecessors, the plot is secondary, characterization holds the paramount place, and the plots take care of themselves. Consequently, they have no construction. 463 In the

⁴²The title Somehow Good sounds as if it belonged to a purpose novel, but there

⁴²The title Somehow Good sounds as if it belonged to a purpose novel, but there is no obtrusive teaching in the story.

⁴³Professor Phelps, in his Essays on Modern Novelists (p. 27). cannot be serious when he says, "Indeed, all of Mr. De Morgan's books might well be circulated as anti-alcohol tracts; the real villain in his tragedies is drink."

⁴⁴Cf. Alice-for-Short and The Old Madhouse.

⁴⁵Joseph Vance, chap. xl.

⁴⁶Cf. W. L. Phelps, Essays on Modern Novelists, p. 20.

⁴⁵Mrs. De Morgan has made an interesting statement in this regard (The Old Madhouse, p. 566): "When my husband started on one of his novels, he did so without making any definite plot. He created his characters and then waited for them to act and evolve their own plot."

first place, when he has more than one plot in a story, the two do not always coalesce into a unity. Perhaps the worst instance in his novels of the "bifurcated plot", as Professor Matthews calls it, appears in It Never Can Happen Again: until the final catastrophe occurs, almost no connection exists between the story of Lizarann and her father and that of Challis and Judith. Lizarann's story and that of Challis' wife and Charlotte Eldridge have but the slightest relation, also. Notable instances of this same fault occur in Thackeray's Vanity Fair and George Eliot's Middlemarch. Most of Dickens' novels offend in the same way.

In the second place, De Morgan's plots do not move straight forward, but zig-zag back and forth. Either he will give us the details of a circumstance after he has told us of its occurrence, or he will drop the narrative at a very exciting moment and tell us about something else at a distance. He is very "Victorian" in this respect, and, like Dickens, provokes us exceedingly at times. This lack of plot construction, however, when combined with the excellent characterization found in our author, on the whole, adds to the verisimilitude of his stories. This certainly holds true in the case of Thackeray. Tife itself has ragged edges; it has not been finished off smooth; it zig-zags.

In still another way De Morgan breaks the threads of his plots. He stops at intervals to apologize to the reader for the lack of interest or progress in the narrative;⁴⁸ for example, this digression occurs in *Somehow Good*:

Our story is like the scherzo in one respect: it has to be given in detached jerks — literary, not musical — these jerks don't come at any stated intervals at all. The music was bad enough — so Sally and Laetitia thought — but the chronicle is more spasmodic still. However, if you want to know its remaining particulars, you will have to brace yourself up to tolerating an intermittent style. It is the only one our means of collecting information admits of.⁴⁹

The same thing appears in It Never Can Happen Again:

Those who measure events only by the bounce they manifest — their rapidity, or unexpectedness, or by the clamour that accompanies them — will wonder why any narrator of a story should think such flat incident worth recording. But observe! — it was the very flatness of this conversation that gave it its importance, coming as it did on the top of the exhilaration of Mr. Challis' visit, and his parting with that large and lively company of friends less than two hours ago. ⁵⁰

⁴⁷Richard Burton, Masters of the English Novel, p. 206. ⁴⁸Professor Phelps has pointed out that in this De Morgan is in line with a tradition which has always characterized the English novel (Essays on Modern Novelists, pp. 13-15). ⁴⁹P. 87; see also p. 44. ⁵⁰P. 126.

It has been objected that, whereas in reading a story, our wants to forget the printed page and believe that the events are all happening, this method destroys all the illusion that the author has been able to produce. However, this can be said for it: altho it takes away the illusion that the events are happening, it increases the illusion that they did happen. For example, in the first passage quoted above, altho it is true that we are conscious that we are reading a story, at the same time, the allusion to Sally and Laetitia, as if they were real people, and the expression "our means of collecting information", as if the events actually happened, add very much to the impression of reality. The same may be said of the other passage. We really believe all the stronger that Mr. Challis is living and was very recently with a large and lively company of friends. 52

In the third place, De Morgan's plots have defective conclusions — externally — that is, in the way in which they are indicated. De Morgan loves to drop his curtain suddenly at a very exciting moment or interesting catastrophe, and then supply in the most round-about way the barest details of what we have a right to know. Joseph Vance suddenly quits writing, and the rest of the facts we get in a very improbable, complicated shape in a "Note by the Editor" and a "Postscript by the Publishers". Nothing more unnecessary or unnatural could have been devised. The impression forces itself upon us that the author is tired and does not care how slouchy an exit he makes. Alice-for-Short has an Addendum in the form of "An extract from the diary of the late Abbé Bernadin Fabrôt, of Boulestin l'Annonay", as published in the Journal d'Hier, February 29, 1853. Somehow Good provokingly ends with two letters — which does not seem fair. after the way we have been worked up over the drowning and resuscitation. In It Never Can Happen Again the thread suddenly snaps, and twelve months later the brief conversation between Athelstan Taylor and his wife (which is the first news that we have of their marriage) supplies all that we are ever to know. An Affair of Dishonor concludes with a manuscript confession that seems to have been made expressly for the reader, as a means of escape for the author. "A Belated Pendrift"

⁵¹W. L. Phelps, Essays on Modern Novelists, pp. 13-16.
52De Morgan carries this device even farther — hardly so effectively. For example, in Somehow Good, chapter v, he makes a reference back to chapters i and ii: "It refers, at any rate, to the way in which the contents of chapters i and ii had become records of the past six months later, when the snow was on the ground four inches thick on Christmas — two inches, at least, having been last night's contribution — and made it all sweet and smooth all over so that there need be no unpleasantness." Cf. also Alice-for-Short, pp. 478, 544.

takes the place of a conclusion to When Ghost Meets Ghost. We are left only to conjecture how De Morgan, if he had lived, would have brought out the explanations furnished by his wife in the last chapter of The Old Madhouse.

The Early Victorians are noted for their large number of characters. Dickens, Thackeray, and George Eliot have whole families of them in each novel. In Pickwick Papers the numbers extend into the hundreds. Today the custom is to concentrate on a few and to treat them in a highly intensive way. And yet, in spite of the admirable results of this, on the whole, the method of the Victorians tends to greater verisimilitude, for where a great many characters appear, the atmosphere of reality is increased. Perspective, which plays a great part in the veracity of representations of the real, is provided in a large degree where a number of characters are associated together. A greater appearance of reality occurs in an interplay of groups upon each other than in the episodes of isolated individuals or units of three or four. Even if a large number of characters tends to dissipate the attention and interest from the prominent ones and lessen their impression in certain ways, this is compensated for by the gain in verisimilitude due to the background created by the various relations of the individuals. This principle, which the Early Victorians often exaggerated, has been maintained by De Morgan very successfully. In each of his books, except that anomalous An Affair of Dishonor, the prominent characters abound in unusual numbers, and they appear sharply individualized, not only in the novel where they occur but also in comparison with the whole body of characters that the author has created. The Dragon, Goody Vereker, 53 Mrs. Challis, Charlotte Eldridge, 54 Lavinia Straker's mother, 55 Mrs. Percival Pellew, 56 Mrs. Hinchliffe,⁵⁷ and Lady Towerstairs⁵⁸ are all disagreeable and, except the last, middle-aged, and yet they are distinct personalities. Professor Sales Wilson, 59 Dr. Thorpe, 58 and Professor Fraser⁵⁷ are scholars of reputation; Joseph Vance, General Desprez, 58 Charley Heath, 60 Athelstan Taylor, 61 Fenwick, Prosy, the Major, 59 and Charley Snaith 57 are fine gentlemen; Christopher Vance, his first wife, Mrs. Packles, 58 Blind Jim, Lizarann's uncle and

⁵³ Somehow Good. \$350mehow Good.
\$4It Never Can Happen Again.
\$5Alice-for-Short.
\$5When Ghost Meets Ghost.
\$5The Old Madhouse.
\$5Joseph Vance.
\$5Somehow Good.
\$6Alice-for-Short.
\$1It Never Can Happen Again.

aunt, 61 Alice's father and mother, 60 and Mr. and Mrs. Grewbeer, 57 all belong to the "submerged tenth" — and vet each of these characters not only seems entirely different from the others but appears as a real human being whom we recall by name. same holds true of the charming young girls Lossie, Janey,58 Alice-for-Short, Peggy, 60 Sally, 59 Gwen, 62, and Elbows. 57 Even where certain accidental marks of resemblance exist, the characters are still sharply differentiated; for example, the two physicians, Dr. Johnson⁵⁸ and Prosy, ⁵⁹ the three old men who die, Verrender, ⁶² the Colonel, and the Major,59 and the devotees of free love, Challis⁶¹ and Joey Thorpe.⁵⁸ Besides these more prominent characters, we can never forget a great many others. a person enters the story casually, a cab-driver or a street-rat, he has a marked individuality. Porky Owls. 58 Frederick 'Orkins. 61 and the unknown boy who insists on guiding Sally thru the fog. 59 resemble one another in no respect.

Our author's possibilities of character portrayal seem inexhaustible. He introduces characters so lavishly that he approaches very closely to prodigality. We meet Mr. Salter in the first chapter of Somehow Good, and that is the last that we ever see of him. We have as short an acquaintance with the man putting down the carpet at Professor Wilson's, 63 Mr. Peter Gunn, the Reverend Mr. Capstick. 64 the grouchy old gentleman on the tube, 63 and many others. A more parsimonious author would have preserved these as copy for future volumes. This liberality, however, has seldom led De Morgan into caricature. With rare exceptions, his people all live. And they do not belong to one class of society, as do most of those of his great predecessors. Dickens came truest to life in describing the lower classes: Thackeray wrote almost wholly of the upper classes; and George Eliot did her best work as the chronicler of middle-class country life. Yet De Morgan is just as much at home in the slums as with the upper classes. Altho Christopher Vance⁶⁴ is perhaps his best character, a number at the other end of the social ladder stand out almost as fine. Nor do his people belong to one class spiritually, the he has more good than bad, mean ones. We do not get the impression from his books, as we do from Thackeray's, that the 'world is all bad, and the men and women are all rascals. No

⁵⁷ The Old Madhouse. 58 Joseph Vance.

^{**}Soseph value.
**Somehow Good.
**Godice-for-Short.
**It Never Can Happen Again.
**Ewhen Ghost Meets Ghost.

⁶³ Somehow Good. 64 Joseph Vance.

novelist has created so many lovely, charming people. And his good men and women do not act like sticks, as Dickens' generally do. And, like George Eliot's characters, his people have complex personalities, with both good and bad in them. Charley Heath. 65 admirable as he is, makes more or less a failure of his life; Rosalind Graythorpe⁶⁶ has a dark past; and Christopher Vance's death⁶⁷ resulted from drink. Athelstan Taylor⁶⁸ has a human as well as a theological nature: Fred Cartaret⁶⁹ barely escapes being true to his friend; even Daverill⁷⁰ is affected by the sight of his dead mother.

In his child-creations De Morgan is especially felicitous, exhibiting the keenest perceptions of child-psychology. Lizarann furnishes an instance of this. 68 Because of the Reverend Athelstan Taylor's effective measures against her uncle, Mr. Steptoe, she has taken the former for a policeman, and to herself calls him the "New Police". So, shortly afterwards, when she hears him tell Addie Fosset, "I suppose I shall have to, Addie. I always have to do all the dirty work", she wonders, "Did the New Police scrub underneath the beds, clear the flues of sut, scour out the sink, and so on? Impossible!" In this understanding of children, De Morgan is very modern. Master Charles⁶⁹ is the most human baby in all English literature. No children in all fiction ever thought or talked as much like children as do David and Dolly Wardle.70

Another noteworthy thing about De Morgan's characters is the fact that they develop. If, as it has been said of Dickens' characters, they always remain the same, this is not true of De Morgan's. They grow: some up and some down. Joseph Vance develops in a very lifelike way; Joey Thorpe degenerates in a most convincing way.⁷¹ Charley Heath appears as two different people.⁷² Janey expands wonderfully under the influence of Joe's love. 71 And vet, altho De Morgan shows us the soul-growth of these characters, except in a few instances, 73 he does not give us the tedious minutiae of such analyses, as George Eliot does. She points out too elaborately the relation of thought to action, and she cannot conceive of character except in terms of soul.⁷⁴ How-

⁶⁵ Alice-for-Short.

⁶⁸ Somehow Good. 67 Joseph Vance. 68 It Never Can Happen Again. 69 The Old Madhouse.

⁷⁰ When Ghost Meets Chost.

⁷¹ Joseph Vance.

⁷²Alice-for-Short, ⁷³See above, pp. 8, 9. ⁷⁴Richard Burton, Masters of the English Novel, p. 209.

ever much we may admire the anatomizing of a biologist, he does not show us a human being. De Morgan makes us acquainted with people — so intimately that we could recognize them on the street, just as we do Dickens' all the time. George Eliot exhibits people's characters and souls most wonderfully; but there is more to men and women than characters and souls. We admire her scientific analyses, but we remember De Morgan's people. And, finally, as was stated before, his characters seem the more real and vivid on account of the way he has presented them to us. He does not give us a catalog of their virtues and vices and peculiarities the first time we meet them. We come to know them just as we do people in real life.

De Morgan is very successful with his conversations. At their best, and they are seldom otherwise, they are almost flawless. Admirable as Dickens' and Thackeray's are, they have more of the flavor of the book about them. De Morgan has so developed the art of representing speech that his invariably have the vividness and the naturalness of life itself. George Eliot's people, by comparison, talk like wooden men. And they say so much at one time that it is inconceivable that their hearers would listen to them so long without saving a word. The secret of De Morgan's success is that he records conversation just as people say it ambiguous, inconsequential, and disjointed, as it is in real life, for, as he himself has said, "Very rarely indeed does a human creature say what it means. Exhaustive definition, lucid statements, concise terminology — even plain English — are foreign to its nature." This conversation between Sally and Laetitia during their music practice illustrates the disjointed, inconsequential type:

"I tike him awfully, you know, Tishy. In fact, I love him. It's a pleasure to hear him come into the house. Only — one's *mother*, you know! It's the oddity of it!"

"Yes, dear. Now, are you ready? . . . . . It is only clickets down because you will not screw in; it's no use turning and leaving the key sloppy. . . . . ."

"I know, Tishy dear — teach your granny! There I think that's right now. But it is funny when it's one's mother, isn't it?" ⁷⁶

The vocabulary, the emphasis, the lack of coherence, and the individuality, all contribute to its naturalness. De Morgan shows unusual skill in repeating conversation between persons in two different rooms, or in the act of shaving, or in bed at night, or at

⁷⁵ Somehow Good, p. 353.

⁷⁶ Ibid., p. 83.

the table. He gives the natural setting and perspective to their very words. An example of the last in this conversation at Rosalind's table between herself, Sally, and Fenwick. It jumps from one person to the other, just as in life:

"Well, kitten, I suppose you'll go your own way; only I shall be very glad when you're back in your machine. Coffee, Gerry?"

"Yes, coffee — in the big cup with the chip, and lots of milk. You're a dangerous young monkey, Sarah; and I shall get old Benjamin's boat, and hang about. And then you'll be happy, Rosey, eh?"

"No, I shan't! We shall have you getting capsized, too. (I put in three lumps of sugar. . . . . No, not little ones — big ones!) What a thing it is to be connected with aquatic characters!"  77 

When people talk, they do not use well-rounded, complete sentences. Characters in most books do. De Morgan's, however, are remarkable exceptions. Rosalind, speaking to Fenwick one day, says:

"But then Shakespeare might have gone on and written a dry respectable story — not a love-story; an esteem story — about how Juliet took an interest in Romeo's welfare, and Romeo posted her letters for her, and presented her with a photograph album and so on. And how the families left cards." ⁷⁸

The sentence-fragment with which this concludes is very characteristic of De Morgan's mode of representing conversation. That, really, is the way people talk. The whole of this conversation illustrates the spare use of the ordinary machinery of book dialogue — the "he saids" and the "she replieds". It occupies two pages, and yet there occur only one "said Fenwick", one "as Fenwick says", one "she replies", and one "Fenwick repeats". It is De Morgan's principle not to depend on such identifying tags, but to so individualize his people's words that we have no doubt which one is speaking. He has also caught the secret of representing the chatter of several persons talking at once. This he does by throwing their sentences together, with no identification whatever, except the marks of individuality accompanying each speaker's words. When Tishy and the Counter Jumper take their honeymoon at St. Sennans-on-Sea and Sally and her mother first see them, the effect of reality is given to their first words by these conglomerates:

"How did you manage to get it arranged?" "Why now? Have you quarrelled with your mother?" "How long can you be away? I hate the stingy honeymoon!" "You've got no things." "Do you think they'll know at home where you are?" "Where are you going afterwards?" "What do

⁷⁷Somehow Good, p. 358. ⁷⁸Ibid., p. 240.

you think your father will say?" "What I want to know is, what put it into your head now, more than any other time?"79

As De Morgan says, "It does not really matter who were the speakers, nor what the share of each was", for in real life people run on in this way, with no one paying any particular attention to what the other is saving.

Another reason why this author's conversations produce the effect of reality is the limited length of each speaker's parts. In a great many books an intimate conversation consists of series of orations, while in actual life only the bore monopolizes the conversation in this way. De Morgan allows his people, however, to speak only a normal amount at a time, and this has a great deal to do with their genuineness. He has given verisimilitude to the conversations, also, by the little individual peculiarities of pronunciation which he sometimes indicates. For instance, Beppino was in the habit of saving "Juvence" for "Joe Vance". and "Tinnyson" for that poet. At one time he had a way of calling Joe "Medea. Fill. Awe" (my dear fellow), and at another he pronounced it "Deiphila".80 Sally constantly exclaimed "we-e-e-ell", 81 and Mr. Tick was fond of "absoli-yootly". 82 Uncle Drury always said "charchar" for "'pshaw".83 Many of our author's best conversations occur in the dialect of the slums, of which the tilt between Frederick 'Orkins and Mrs. Groves of Vatted Rum Corners furnishes a good illustration:

"Marcy me, no!" said Mother Groves of the chestnuts when requested by him to 'and over a good un, fair and no cheating. "The riskis lies with the buyers. Where 'ud I be, in half the time, at that rate?"

"Then I'll 'ave the law of yer. Just see if I don't." He danced again, and this time his dance seemed to express confidence in his solicitor. But presently he stopped, and offered a composition: "You lookee here, Missis Groves", he said. "I'll 'and you back the mouldy one, onbit-into and closin' over the busted shell, acrost a clean new un, and I'll take another highp'orth off you, and pay square. If that ain't fair, nothin' ain't! But you got to look sharp, or the chance 'll be gone."

Mother Groves rejected the chance "It ain't consideration enough to go again' the rules on, and me to take my 'ands out in the perishing cold. Make it a penn'orth and pick yourself, all exceptin' the three top."

"Hin't got no penny! Feel in my porket and see. It's open to yer to feel. There hin't no horbstickle. Here's a highp'ny and the bloomin' nut, shell and all. Mike your mind up!"84

⁷⁹Somehow Good, pp. 332-333.
80Joseph Vance, p. 340, etc.
81Somehow Good, p. 84, etc.
82A Likely Story, p. 249.
83The Old Madhouse, p. 4.
84It Never Can Happen Again, p. 137. Christopher Vance's talk (in Joseph Vance) is always admirable.

De Morgan also knows the secret of children's speech. His baby talk is always genuine. The two Joeys in Joseph Vance, Alice herself and Peggy's child in Alice-for-Short, Lizarann and her little friend in It Never Can Happen Again, Miss Gwendolen Arkwright in Somehow Good, and Professor Fraser's baby in The Old Madhouse are very unartificial and remarkably true to child life. 85 In all of De Morgan's novels nothing charms us more than David and Dolly talking together in old Mrs. Pictur's room.86

But, perhaps, the most realistic conversation in all of De Morgan's works is that short one in Somehow Good that the Major held with himself. At least it is the most heartfelt:

"Oh, I pray God there is a hell", came audibly from as kind a heart as ever beat. "How I pray God there is a hell!"87

De Morgan, like the Early Victorians, deals with the elemental emotions. He does not follow the modern tendency toward the refinements of feeling and the delicate shades of passion. Love and joy and sorrow and sin and death fill his pages with the scope and intensity characteristic of the Victorians. He agrees much more, however, with modern feeling in the treatment of these emotions. For example, he has a delicacy and reserve of statement that Dickens never knew. The latter has been criticized a great deal of recent years for his excessive display of the feelings, one critic glibly expressing it, "He must have considerably raised the price of pocket handkerchiefs in Britain."88 It is well known how the deaths of Little Nell⁸⁹ and Joe⁹⁰ affect us today. It ought to be said for Dickens, however, that whatever may be the effect of his treatment of the emotions upon us, since he appealed to the people of his day, our lack of appreciation of him now must be largely due to the change in popular taste since then. In another generation we may be less heartless than it is the fashion now to be. De Morgan has steered safely past the maudlin and the sentimental. Lizarann's death, tho as pathetic as anything in Dickens, he has depicted very simply and without any "gush":

Miss Fawcett stopped to listen again. "I shall see my Daddy", is all she hears. Yes — Lizarann shall see her Daddy — it's a promise! What is that she's saving now? Be quiet and listen!

^{**}SPp. 136-137.

**When Ghost Meets Ghost, pp. 839-841.

**TSomehow Good, p. 170.

**SC, F. Horne, The Technique of the Novel.

**The Old Curiosity Shop.

**Great Expectations. Paul Dombey's death in Dombey and Son has been criticized, but it seems natural enough and much superior to Little Nell's and Jo's.

"When I see my Daddy — when I see my Daddy." . . .

"Yes - darling! What?"

"When I see my Daddy I shall call out, 'Poy-lot!' "91

This seems very close to the beautiful but simple statement of death at Colonel Newcome's end. 92 Here there is no rhythm, as in Dickens' pathetic scenes, nor do we hear the doleful-comic refrain that sounds when Little Nell has died, and we are waiting for Dickens to bury her. The Joe Vance feels deeply, his reference to his dead mother shows reticence and reserve:

I walked home in the moonlight, and thought as my latch-key turned in the door that I should not wake my mother.93

At times Dickens expresses the feeling of love, also, with too little restraint. David Copperfield writes thus of the way he felt toward Steerforth:

Yes, Steerforth, long removed from the scenes of this poor history! My sorrow may bear involuntary witness against you at the Judgment throne; but my angry thoughts or my reproaches never will, I know.⁹⁴

This is certainly too oratorical. Equally maudlin is the expression of his love for Dora:

If I may so express it, I was steeped in Dora. I was not merely over head and ears in love with her, but I was saturated through and through. Enough love might have been wrung out of me, metaphorically speaking, to drown anybody in; and yet there would have remained enough within me, and all over me, to pervade my entire existence.95

One would hardly write thus now-a-days — especially for publication. In all of De Morgan's novels love is the central theme, and yet nowhere do we find anything like this. Sanity and good taste characterize all of his love scenes. Prosy and Sally's love-making is particularly well done. 96

De Morgan's humor, in the main, follows that of the Early Victorians. In general, it springs from his extraordinary perception of the humorous in commonplace people. In this he is closely akin to Dickens and Thackeray, yet, close as he is to the former, no one can charge him with caricature. But was Dickens really a caricaturist? He may have made the mistake of emphasizing his characters' humorous qualities too much, but when all has been said, the fact remains that his characters live and we re-

[&]quot;It Never Can Happen Again, p. 598. "Thackeray, The Newcomes. "Joseph Vance, p. 225. "David Copperfield, chap. xxxii.

^{*}Tbid., chap. xxxiii.
**Tbid., chap. xxxiii.
**Somehow Good, p. 41. In his Essays on Modern Novelists, Professor Phelps disagrees with this statement.

member them. 97 The impression of their being caricatures may have been caused by the old-fashioned, eccentric pictures that accompany them. Or it may be due to the inability of many respectable people to see the "funny side" of normal people, for all good people are not born with a keen sense of the ridiculous. Be this as it may, in this aspect of his humor, De Morgan follows in the steps of his great predecessor, as the following passages will show:

But this porter's name was Onions, and he had no soul, except one that was wrapped up in remuneration. So he accepted fourpence and saw nothing.98

But — where was the Deceased Wife's Sister? Samuel explained. He had shown the lady into the mezzanina room, as directed. Samuel felt proud of his Italian over this.99

She could keep off people's corns altogether, but she could not go over them on tiptoe. 100

Miss Upwell had her own share of inquisitiveness, and a little of someone else's. 101

A good deal of this author's humor, like that of Dickens and Thackeray, depends upon his manner of expression. Sometimes he simply puts things in an unusual, original way:

Tea waited to be made, like Eve when she was a rib. 102

An up-to-date English servant respects herself more, or less, in proportion to the degree of confusion into which she can plunge her employers when she throws up her situation. 103

He was just on the point of putting salt on the tail of an unidentified Samnite, or a finishing touch on the demolition of Bopsius.¹⁰⁴

At other times he uses a colloquial or otherwise irregular vocabulary and idiom:

He made himself into a perfect bolster with wraps, and put on a respirator. This damned thing, however, he took off again, as it impeded respiration. 105

Mrs. Groves worked rising indignation into her speech, after the manner of her class. Even so the Choctaw or Cherokee stimulates himself to

^{97&}quot;If the creation of differentiated types of humanity who persist in living in the imagination be the cardinal gift of the fiction writer, then this one (Dickens) is easily the leading novelist of the race. Putting aside for the moment his caricaturing tendency, one fact confronts us, hardly to be explained away: we can close our eyes and see Micawber, Mrs. Gamp, Pegotty, Dick Swiveller, the Artful Dodger, Joe Gargery, Tootles, Captain Cuttle, and a hundred more, and their sayings, quaint and dear, are like household companions. And this is true of no other story-maker who has used English speech — it may be doubted if it is true to like degree of Shakepear himself." Richard Burton, Masters of the English Novel, p. 180.

**SIL Never Can Happen Again, p. 121.

**Plbid., p. 667.**

**100 The Old Madhouse, p. 159.**

**101 Likely Story, p. 243.**

**102 Ibid., p. 201.**

**103 IN Never Can Happen Again, p. 456.**

**104 Somehow Good, p. 555.**

¹⁰⁴Somehow Good, p. 555. ¹⁰⁵Ibid., p. 258.

battle-point. But Frederick Hawkins remained unmoved. He knew the old woman couldn't ketch holt upon him. 106

She expresses contrition as far as error of judgment, but no great remorse. She told her master — meaning her husband — who said it was a queer start. But it was that early! The exact bearing of this fact on the matter was far from clear. 107

The quoting of a character's speech indirectly in the body of the text also contributes to the humor of our author's work, as in the passages above. But his most characteristic humor is that which he finds in the inconsequential workings of the human mind. Our minds have an illogical, inconsequential way of expressing themselves; we do not always say just what we mean; we take a great deal for granted; our words by themselves are inadequate and deceptive. De Morgan has seized upon this limitation of thought and speech, and with it has developed a species of humor all his own. The following are typical examples:

"My word, missis, he was bad! Wanted to holler me over the coals, he did, for behind my time. I could hear him wantin' to do it. But he couldn't come by the breath."108

"My dear, you said nothing. But if your father could have heard what you did not say, you know very well what he would have thought."109

They were not history, but Scripture, and broadly speaking might be considered to have happened on Sunday. 110

Mother Groves's hearing was none of the best; so when she condemned the time-honored legend as outlandish and French, it may be she had really supposed that some of the expressions were in a foreign tongue, any variety of which she would consider French, failing instruction to the contrary. But Lizarann's reference to the Lord, to sinners, and to repentance, was strong enough in itself to keep suspicions of Voltaire and Tom Paine in abeyance. Mrs. Groves therefore allowed the story to continue, and felt fortified against the heresies abounding on the continent by the approved religious bias of the narrator.111

As for the pulse, that she could not be certain about. But finding of pulses was not one of her strong points. She had an inner conviction they never occurred twice in the same place. 112

The finest quality in the novels of William De Morgan is their verisimilitude. In obtaining this, he has shown a good deal of independence of his predecessors. It has already been pointed out what assistance he received from them; but he has some more original devices for imparting reality to his stories. As we have

 ¹⁰³ It Never Can Happen Again, pp. 138-139.
 107 Ibid., p. 183.
 108 Somehow Good, pp. 269-270.

¹⁰⁸ Joid., p. 151. 110 Joseph Vance. p. 489. 111 L Never Can Happen Again, p. 141. 112 The Old Madhouse, p. 179.

already seen, he introduces a character to us by degrees, as we come to know a person in real life. And his characters grow and develop as living people do. Besides this, he has a way of letting the facts in regard to certain occurrences transpire just as in lifein a natural, instead of the usual bookish way. Murder and other things come out gradually. 113 For instance, we do not learn the details of Blind Jim's first accident for some time; we hear them only when Lady Arkroyd goes to see Jim in the hospital and he tells her. 114 The proneness of De Morgan's characters to nickname each other, also, adds to the tone of veracity that pervades his books. 115 Especially is this true when a character has several pet names, as in the case of Miss Rosalind Nightingale, who has at least four aliases: Sally, Sarah, the kitten, and the merpussy. 116 Verisimilitude frequently arises, also, from the inconsequential talk of the characters:

"There, now! you're being imperturbable! I knew you would. But you may say what you like — there really was nothing in it. Nothing whatever that time! However, of course Mother does like Mr. Fenwick very much — everybody knows that."

Laetitia says time will show, and Sally says, "Show what?" For the remark connects with nothing in the conversation. 117

De Morgan procures the effect of reality by the simplest touches. In talking to the reader, he assumes a genial, intimate tone, just as Thackeray did; he mentions insignificant objects that are a part of the scene or circumstance, as the unhappy kitten in the Major's lap, 118 the fly in Mrs. Challis' ink, 119 the perennial bluebottle fly between the blind and the window-pane while Sally eats her breakfast, 120 and the safety-pin that she could not find; 121 he casually refers to people who really have nothing to do with the story; 122 he recalls some antecedent circumstance that gives naturalness to a later occurrence, as Sally's going into the house to direct a letter for Fenwick to mail: 123 he speaks of a character as if he existed in actual life outside of the book;124 and

¹¹³Sometimes the reader is never informed exactly what the facts were; for example, the exact nature of the crime that darkened Rosalind's life is never told, the three are references to it again and again (Somehow Good, pp. 120, 132, 133, 177, 495). These indefinite references add very much to the verisimilitude of the crime.

114I Never Can Happen Again, p. 214. This was really Jim's second accident.

115Somehow Cood.

¹¹⁵Somehow Coc2
116De Morgan is like Dickens when he gives his characters what may be called generic names; as, the Fossil, the Dragon, the Goody (Somehow Good), and Nosey and Elbows (The Old Madhouse).
117Somehow Cood, p. 85.
118Ibid., p. 170.
119II Never Can Happen Again, p. 358.
120Somehow Cood, p. 179.
121Ibid. p. 521.

¹²¹ Ibid., p. 521. 122 It Never Can Happen Again, pp. 377, 513. 123 Somehow Good, p. 88.

¹²⁴ Ibid., p. 561.

in connection with reminiscences out of a distant past, he recollects some antecedent circumstance of insignificant character that gives the tone of reality to the more important circumstance, as Joseph Vance's remembering on the night after his father's fight with Peter Gunn, "I lay still and sucked my nightgown, of which I can distinctly recollect the flavor to this day."125

But the most original source of this novelist's verisimilitude is the unusual, unconventional diction that he frequently employs. In this way he secures a remarkable degree of reality. For example, he employs colloquial words and forms of expression, as we have already seen — the actual speech of his characters — for which he never apologizes with either quotation marks or italics:

The rostrum happened to be a hassock on the hearthrug, before the little bit of fire that wasn't at all unwelcome; because September had set in quite cold already, and there was certain to be a warm Christmas if it went on like this, and it would be unhealthy. 126

Not only does he use the colloquial words of polite society, but he utilizes even the vocabulary and idiom of the illiterate. In referring to Mr. Salter's oath to twist off his wife's nose, he thus expresses himself:

The result seemed likely to turn on whether the victim's back hair would endure the tension as a fulcrum, or would come rippin' out like so much grorse.127

He employs these uncouth expressions particularly when he represents talk indirectly; for example:

Tallock Street would have replied, forcibly as we think, that it warn't messin' about with any blooming reasonings - only turning of it over . . . Her mourning gownd was that respectable to look at you couldn't 'ardly tell her for Mrs. Steptoe, goin' along the street, or in at the butcher's.128

When he needs a word that is not found in the dictionary, he manufactures it on the analogy of a word that is: for example, Sundane, 129 Squirophant, 130 Genteelologist, 131 ungrundied, 132 sobriometer, 133 I-told-you-soing, 134 and others. He constructs his sentences, also, whenever he pleases, just as people talk:

¹²⁵Joseph Vance, p. 11. ¹²⁶Somehow Good, pp. 203-204.

¹²⁸Somehow Good, pp. 203-204.
127Ibid., p. 4.
128It Never Can Happen Again, p. 231. E. Temple Thurston, in his City of Beautiful Nonsense, seems to be imitating this method of De Morgan's.
129Somehow Good, p. 181.
130Ibid., p. 312.
131Ibid., p. 230.
132It Never Can Happen Again, p. 282.
133A Likely Story, p. 258.
134The Old Madhouse, p. 435.

Only Tisha's teeth never could get as big as that! Nor wiggle, 135

Ever since, the sea had broken over it at high tides, and if you cared at all about your clothes you wouldn't go to the end of it, if you were me, Because the salt gets into them and spoils the dye. Besides, you have to change everything. 136

So he sat down to think where the dooce that box had got put. 137

This method of De Morgan's adds most unmistakably an atmosphere of reality to his stories. It has laid him liable, however, to the charge of lacking art and has brought a good deal of adverse criticism against his novels. Lady Cecil has condemned him very emphatically on this account:

For agreed as we are that Mr. De Morgan's success is deserved, we are yet more agreed that his deserved success has had very little to do with art. Mr. De Morgan is like a stranger who has safely traversed a difficult and hostile country provided with neither guide nor safe conduct. He has been congratulated on his feat, but official dignity has hastened to point out that, strictly speaking he ought to have perished by the way. . . . . . There remains Mr. De Morgan's style, which to tell the truth, has shocked us not a little. If to express your thought in the form of common speech is to be heretical against art, then Mr. De Morgan is hopelessly heretical. . . . But the means of transmission, if it is to be admitted as style at all, is certainly an undressed style. It is not a style for Sundays nor for the library. The tool is excellently fitted to its purpose and to the workman's hand, but is was never forged in any workshop of art. 138

To Lady Cecil it should be answered that, instead of this method of De Morgan's being inartistic, it really is the highest form of art. What constitutes the artistic and the inartistic? Is not an author artistic or inartistic according to the degree that he produces artistic results? Real art has never been confined to hide-bound rules of style. The test of art is this — does the work produce the impression of real life? Now, this is exactly the effect that DeMorgan's novels do produce. As we have seen, this method has allowed him greater freedom for the play of his humor; it has brought him closer to his readers; but more than anything else, it has enabled him to produce some charming stories with the highest degree of verisimilitude to which the English novel has yet attained. And he has failed only when, heeding, perhaps, such criticism as Lady Cecil's, he has departed from this style of writing. 139 Is it possible that a "tool excellently fitted to its purpose", when that purpose is the representation of life, cannot have been "forged in any workshop of art"? One would think

¹³⁵ Somehow Good, p. 154.
136 Ibid., p. 385.
137 A Likely Story, p. 250.
138 Lady Eleanor Cecil, Living Age, May 30, 1908, pp. 567-570.
139 This De Morgan has done in An Affair of Dishonor, which is not comparable

that the canon of the artistic had been closed a long time ago—instead of always being in a state of development and subject to revision thruout the ages yet to be. As Chesterton has said, "The hardest thing to remember about our time, of course, is simply that it is a time; we all instinctively think of it as the Day of Judgment." De Morgan has produced artistic effects if realistic effects are artistic effects, if reality is great art, and therefore the limits of art will have to be extended to include his works.

To call William De Morgan a "belated Early Victorian" is a blunder. It is true, as we have seen, that he has followed the general methods of the Victorians, especially Dickens. In the length of his books, their leisurely, discursive style, the labels on his chapters, his somewhat improbable, badly constructed plots, which are always subordinated to the characterization, his large number of characters, certain qualities of his humor, and his epic rather than impressionistic view of life, he has maintained the Victorian tradition. But, as we have also seen, he has carried the novel considerably beyond the development that the Victorians have given it. Altho he has asides somewhat like Thackeray's and George Eliot's, he is not snobbish or cynical, as Thackeray is said to be, and he does not talk so heavily or preach so seriously as George Eliot. He analyzes actions and motives in certain respects like her, but he does not go to the extremes that she does. Closely as he has followed Dickens, he has avoided caricature, he has created characters that have complex natures and that develop, and he has expressed the emotions with reserve and restraint. compared with these Victorians, he has made his novels shorter: he has eliminated all lengthy objective descriptions of people and places, especially those of nature; he has created men and women and boys and girls of all classes; he has considerably developed the representation of conversation; he has elevated the quality of humor beyond that of the Victorians; he has put into his works the social, intellectual, and ethical spirit of the present day; he has disregarded the conventional vocabulary and idiom, and has set a new style for the realistic novel; and he has given the English novel the highest degree of verisimilitude that it has ever attained.

If it be granted that to this extent De Morgan has developed and modernized the Victorian novel, how shall we estimate him as a novelist? Certainly, he is not entirely a Victorian; for will not all agree that, instead of borrowing from his great predecessors

¹⁴⁰G. K. Chesterton, Charles Dickens, A Critical Study, p. 291.

and copying them directly, he has availed himself of their method and spirit? However much the Early Victorians overdid and exaggerated certain tendencies in their novels, surely they had the right principles. They put the emphasis upon characterization; they believed in the full value of humor; and they aimed at a realization of life in its fulness. True it is that they overdid most of what they tried to do, but the abuse of their principles does not invalidate them. It is the soundness of these principles. in spite of the way that they exaggerated them, that keeps their works alive today. And, no doubt, because he realized that the Early Victorians came closest to the true expression of life, De Morgan has followed their principles. He himself has confessed, "Dickens was my idol in childhood, boyhood, youthhood, manhood, and so on, to a decade of senility — even until now."141 It must be borne in mind, however, that in following in the steps of Dickens and the other Early Victorians, he imitated the spirit and not the letter of their great novels, for he is always more than And vet there is no greater praise than to call him Victorian. Victorian.

¹⁴¹De Morgan wrote these words on the margin of a copy of *The Yale Courant* (June, 1909), sent to him by Henry Dennis Hammond, which contains the latter's prize essay, *The Novels of William De Morgan*.





# INDIANA UNIVERSITY STUDIES



Study No. 51

REPORT OF THE DEAN OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, INDIANA UNIVERSITY

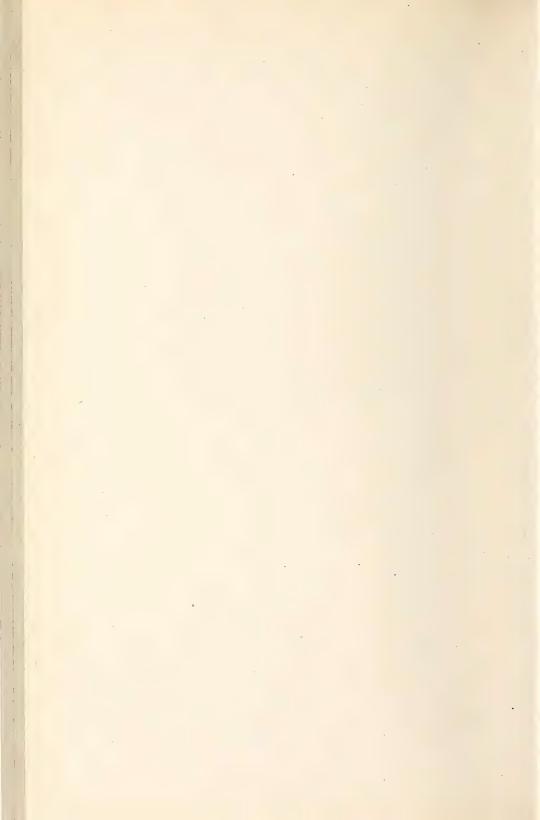
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INDIANA UNIVERSITY STUDIES VOL. VIII

### Study No. 51

REPORT OF THE DEAN OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, INDIANA UNIVERSITY



### Report of the Dean of the Graduate School, 1921

## I. SOME STATISTICS TO SHOW THE CONDITION OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL IMMEDIATELY BEFORE, DURING, AND SINCE THE WAR

#### NUMBER OF STUDENTS (SEE TABLE 1)

The average number of students in attendance during a year between June, 1911, and June, 1917, was 195. The largest number in attendance for any one year was between June, 1916, and June, 1917. There were 230 different individuals enrolled during this year, and the average attendance for the summer and two semesters was 118 minus. There was a distinct decrease in the attendance during the following year, 1917-18. The decrease was progressive; the decrease for the summer term was 18 per cent from the preceding summer. The decrease for the fall semester was 31 per cent, and for the spring semester, 41 per cent (from the fall and spring semesters of 1916-17). The decrease continued to the following year, being 23 per cent, nearly 60 per cent, and nearly 40 per cent for the summer and the two semesters respectively. The greatest drop was for the fall semester. There was evidence of a slackening of the descent in the spring semester.

Table 1—The Number of Students By Terms Enrolled in the Graduate School Since 1911

	1911	1912 -13	1913 -14				1917 -18	1918 -19	1919 -20	1920 -21
Summer Fall or 1st	90	104	82	121	98	138	113	87	79	138
Semester Winter Spring or .	64 66		74 79		91	112	77	31 36	52	59
2d Semester Number of	71	70	67	108	99	106	62	38	47	74
Women Number of	45	58	61	68	54	84	87	71	70	84
Men Totals	132 177	131 189	108 169		138 192				65 135	

The summer session of 1919 showed a further decrease from the preceding summer, but the fall and spring semesters showed a recovery from the preceding slump.

The summer of 1920 showed a complete recovery from war conditions to the maximum pre-war numbers. The fall and spring semesters showed further recoveries but not to the pre-war maximum.

The effect of the war on the attendance of men is shown by the following:

1. Actual Number. The average number of men in attendance during an entire school year, between June, 1911, and June, 1917, was 134. The average for the last three of these years was 144. During 1916-17 the attendance of men was 146. From this, the descent was rapid to 99, 71, and 65, during the years 1917-20.

The summer of 1920 showed a distinct recovery, there being 88 men registered for the one session as against the 65 for the entire preceding year.

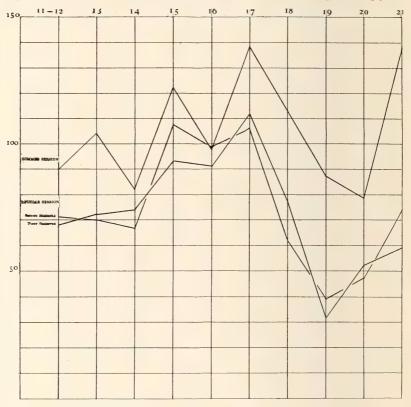


Chart 1 shows the actual attendance per semester.

2. Relative Number. In 1911-12, 74 per cent of the students were men. In the year 1915-16, 72 per cent of the students enrolled were men. With the decrease in the total number of students between 1916 and 1920 the per cent of men in the total enrollment of the year fell to 47 per cent. With an increase in the number of students during the current year of 1920-21, there is also an increase in the per cent of men.

The number of women in attendance has fluctuated much less than the number of men. The average number of women in attendance between June, 1911, and June, 1917, was 61. The maximum number of women in attendance was between June, 1917, and June, 1918, during the worst part of the war. While the number has been less during 1918-20, nevertheless

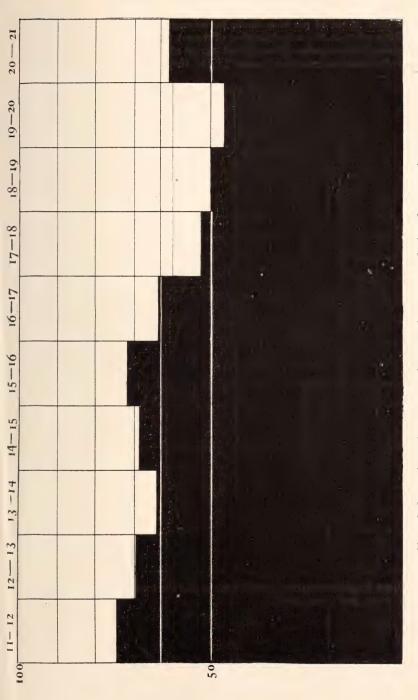


Chart 2 shows the ratio of men and women in per cents during the same time.

it has been about 16 per cent above the average before the war. The war had little effect on the actual number of women in residence, but by causing a decrease in the number of men it had a great effect in temporarily changing the ratio between men and women in the Graduate School.

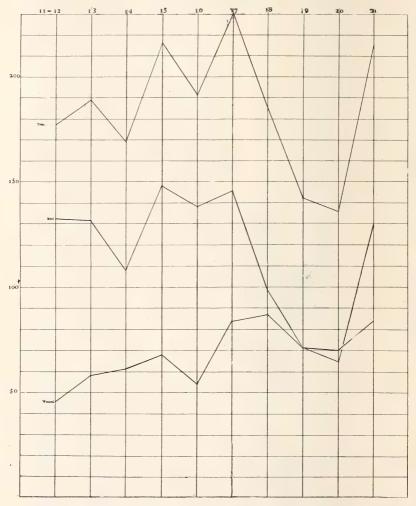


Chart 3, attendance of men and women and the total attendance between June, 1911, and June, 1920.

#### THE MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE

Between 1908 and 1920 the degree Master of Arts has been conferred on 164 women and 399 men, a total of 563 with an average ratio of 2.4 + men to each woman. The date and the major subject of these is indicated by Table 2.

Table 2—The Number of M.A. and M.S. Degrees Conferred Since January, 1908, by Departments Arranged According to the Total Number of Degrees Conferred

٠		'08	'09	'10	'11	'12	'13	'14	'15	'16	· '17	'18	'19	'20	Tota
	EnglishEducation	7 2 2	3 3	s (	3		10 10		15 6	15	16	7	12	4 6	106 77
	Chemistry			12	4	8	7	3	11	6	7 2 5	2 2	1	6	56
ŧ.	History	4		.4	2 5	4	4 7	4 3	7 2	7	5	6	4	2	56
	Mathematics Latin	2		4	1 0	1 4			5	5 2	1	3		1	37
,	Physics	1	- 1	2	2	4	2 2	1	2	1	3		2	2	26
3.	Philosophy	2	1	4	3	3			2	. 3			1	3	25
-	/oölogy	2	2	3		4	1	2	4	1	3	1	1		24
١.	Economics and Sociology	1	1	2	3	1	1	5	2	1	4	1		1	23
	German	2			1	1	5	3	3	2	1	1			19
	Botany		1 2 3		2 2	. 1	3	2	3	1	3		- :		17
	Geology		3		2		2	5	3						15
	Physiology	1	1	,		2 2		1	2		2	2			8
	Social Service				1					2	1		2	3	8
	Anatomy			1		1			1	.2	2				7
	Romance Languages	·i		1	1			4	1		1	1*			7
). ).	Pathology	1	1		1							1"		2	1 20
	Comparative Philology				1				1		1				4
	Experimental Surgery							2							2
	Greek	i		. 1			1								2
	Fine Arts							1							1
•	I IIIO III OS.							-							1
-															
	Total	32	29	45	35	50	56	49	-71	55	53	28	29	31	563
	Men	24	23	37	28	37	42	34	54	38	33	14	13	22	39
	Women	8	6	8		13	14	15	17	17	20	14	16	9	16
	Ratio Women to Men	1:3	1:3.83	1:4.62	1:4	1:2.84	1:3	1:2.8	1:3.2	1:2.23	1:1.65	1:1	1:.81	1.2.44	

^{*}Master of Science.

Sex Ratio among the Masters of Arts. The ratio of men to women among the persons on whom the A.M. degree has been conferred changed materially during the war. There were from 2.8 to 4.6 men to one woman among those receiving the degree Master of Arts, between 1908 and 1915. Between 1916 and 1919 the ratio dropped rapidly.

In 1918 the number of men and women was equal and in 1919 there were more women than men. Among the persons on whom the degree was conferred in June and October, 1920, the ratio was 2.44 men to each woman, nearly the average ratio. The increase in the ratios of men to women in 1920 was due in part to an increase in men and in part to a decrease in the number of women candidates for the degree. There were fewer women candidates than at any time since 1911.

Per Cent of Men and Women among the Persons receiving the A.M. Degree since January, 1908, by Departments. The total number of persons receiving

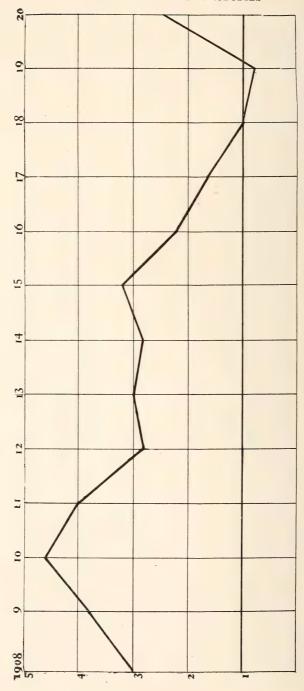


Chart 4, the ratio of men to each woman (the horizontal line at 1) on whom the degree Master of Arts has been conferred

the A.M. degree since January, 1908, being 563, of whom 399 are men and 164 women, the per cents of men and women are nearly 70.8 per cent and 29.2 per cent. For the departments, this ratio of the sexes among the persons who received the degree A.M. obtains only in Botany.

In nine of the departments 100 per cent of those receiving the A.M. degree are men. The ratio of men to women as given below is of value in proportion to the number of individuals concerned. Evidently the ratio given means nothing for Astronomy, Fine Arts, and Surgery, where only one or two persons are concerned. It is distinctly significant for Economics, Physics, Chemistry, Education, Mathematics, History, English, and Latin.

The departments in which 100 per cent of the persons on whom the A.M. degree was conferred are men are: Anatomy, Astronomy, Economics, Fine Arts, Pathology, Political Science, Physics, Physiology, and Surgery.

The departments in which from 90 to 95 per cent of the persons on whom the degree A.M. was conferred are men are: Chemistry, Geology, Education, and Philosophy.

The departments in which from 66 to 80 per cent of the persons on whom the degree A.M. was conferred are men are: Zoölogy, History, Botany, and Journalism.

The departments in which from 40 to 50 per cent of the persons on whom the degree was conferred are men are: Comparative Philology, Greek, Psychology, and Sociology.

In the departments of German and English, about one-third of the persons on whom the degree was conferred were men.

In Latin, about 21 per cent; in Romance Languages, 16 per cent.

One hundred per cent of the persons on whom the A.M. degree was conferred for work in Social Service were women.

#### THE DOCTORATE IN PHILOSOPHY

The Graduate School was organized in 1904, and the advanced degree of Ph.D. was given for the first time, after a lapse of years, in 1908. Since then, the degree Ph.D. has been conferred on 12 women and 31 men, a total of 43 from the departments and on the date indicated in Table 5.

The maximum number conferred at any one time was in June, 1915. The maximum conferred by any one department was 7; 13 departments have been represented by one or more candidates.

The number of persons carrying on more advanced work in the various departments is not proportionate to the number doing first-year work. This may be seen by comparing the numbers of doctorates conferred by the various departments with the number of Masters' degrees conferred from the same departments, Tables 2 and 3.

Table 3—The Number of Ph.D. Degrees Conferred Since 1900

	'08	'09	'10	'11	'12	'13	'14	'15	'16	'17	'18	'19	'20	Total
Astronomy		2												2
Botany		1			2		1	1		1	1	: :		6
English						1	1	2	2		1	1	• •	$\frac{1}{7}$
German								1						1
History Mathematics					1	2	$\frac{1}{1}$		٠.	1	$\frac{\cdot \cdot}{2}$	٠.		3 5
Physics								1	1					2
Physiology Political	1						1	٠.	٠ '				1	3
Science								1	1					2
Psychology													2	$\begin{array}{c} 2\\2\\2\\7\end{array}$
Sociology Zoölogy	2			$\overset{\cdot}{2}$	1					2			2	7
No. of Women .	1	0	0	0	3	0	1	0 6	0	3	$\frac{2}{2}$	0	$\frac{2}{2}$	12
No. of Men Totals	$\frac{2}{3}$	3	0	$\frac{2}{2}$	$\begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{vmatrix}$	3	3 4	6	4	$\frac{1}{4}$	2 4	1	3 5	$\frac{31}{43}$
Lowis	,	9			-	,	-	,		_	-	_		20

#### Source of the Graduate Students

The per cent of students receiving the Master of Arts degree, who received their first degree in other institutions, has increased with the years.

From 1908 to 1911, the per cent was 12.5.

From 1912 to 1914, it was 20.

Between 1915 and 1917 it was 29.5.

Between 1918 and 1920 it was 36.3.

In 1918 half of the students receiving the Master's degree had received their A.B. from Indiana University, the other half from other institutions.

The following institutions have contributed the respective number of graduate students on whom Indiana University has conferred the degree Master of Arts, since January, 1908. All others received their A.B. or B.S. degree from Indiana University.

Wilmington College, Wilmington, Ohio 2
Wilson College, Chambersburg, Penn. 2
Wisconsin University, Madison, Wis. 2

# II. A LIST OF PERSONS ON WHOM THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY HAS BEEN CONFERRED BETWEEN 1908 AND 1920

The major subject is given in heavy-faced type.

ALLEN, WILLIAM RAY.

A.B., Indiana University, 1913; A.M., 1914; Ph.D., 1920.

**Zoölogy.** Thesis: Studies of the biology of freshwater mussels. Biol. Bull., XL, pp. 210-241.

BLACK, CAROLINE ANNA.

A.B., Indiana University, 1908; A.M., 1909; Ph.D., 1912.

Botany. Thesis: The morphology of Riccia frostii Aust. Ann. Bot., XXVII, pp. 511-532, plates XXXVII-XXXVIII. 1913.

Brownfield, Lillian Beeson,

A.B., DePauw University, 1895; A.M., Ohio Wesleyan University, 1904; Ph.D., Indiana University, 1914.

English. Thesis: Studies in the thought of Addison, Johnson, Burke.

Bybee, Halbert Pleasant.

A.B., Indiana University, 1912; A.M., 1913; Ph.D., 1915.

Geology. Thesis: The flood of 1913 in the lower White River region of Indiana. Ind. Univ. Studies, No. 22, pp. 105-223.

Dantzig, Tobias.

Licencié ès Sciences Mathématiques, University of Paris, 1910; Ph.D., Indiana University, 1917.

Mathematics. Thesis: Contributions to the general theory of plane transformations.

DUTCHER, JOHN BENJAMIN.

A.B., Indiana University, 1906; A.M., 1907; Ph.D., 1915.

Physics. Thesis: The nature of the explosion valve in an electrolytic gas.

EDMONDSON, CLARENCE EDMUND.

A.B., Indiana University, 1906; A.M., 1912; Ph.D., 1914.

Physiology. Thesis: The effects of thyroid and thymus extract upon the growth and reproduction in *Paramecium caudatum*.

EDMONDSON, (MRS.) EDNA ELDER HATFIELD.

A.B., Indiana University, 1911; A.M., 1914; Ph.D., 1917.

Sociology. Thesis: Certain associations of crime in the population of Gary, Indiana. Ind. Univ. Studies, No. 49.

ELLIS, MAX MAPES.

A.B., Indiana University, 1907; A.M., 1908; Ph.D., 1911.

Zoölogy. Thesis: The Gymnotid eels. Mem. Carnegie Mus., V, pp. 109-195, plates 15-23.

ESAREY, LOGAN.

A.B., Indiana University, 1905; A.M., 1909; Ph.D., 1913.

History. Thesis: Internal improvement in early Indiana. Ind. Hist. Soc. Publ., V, pp. 40-158.

GALLOWAY, JESSE JAMES.

A.B., Indiana University, 1909; A.M., 1911; Ph.D., 1913.

**Geology.** Thesis: The stratigraphy and paleontology of the Tanner's creek section of the Cincinnati series of Indiana. 37th Ann. Rep. Geol. and Nat. Res. Ind., pp. 353-478, 18 figures, 20 plates, 2 sections, 1 profile and map.

GOLDSMITH, WILLIAM MARION.

B.Pe., Missouri State Normal, 1909; A.B., Hillsdale College, 1913; A.M., Indiana University, 1915; Ph.D., 1920.

Zoölogy. Thesis: A comparative study of the chromosomes of the tiger beetles (Cincidelidæ). Jour. Morph., XXII, pp. 437-488, 9 plates. 1919.

HAHN, WALTER LOUIS.

A.B., Indiana University, 1905; A.M., 1907; Ph.D., 1908.

Zoölogy, Thesis: The habits and reactions of the cave bats. Biol. Bull., XVIII, 135-193,

HANSFORD, HAZEL IRENE.

A.B., Indiana University, 1913; Ph.D., 1920.

**Psychology.** Thesis: The Slack family—a mental and social survey of a degenerate family.

HARMAN, MARY THERESA.

A.B., Indiana University, 1907; A.M., 1909; Ph.D., 1912.

**Zoölogy.** Thesis: Method of cell division in the sex cells of Taenia teniae-formis. Jour. Morph., XXIV, pp. 205-243, 8 plates. 1913.

HARMON, PAUL MONTGOMERY.

A.B., Indiana University, 1914; A.M., 1915; Ph.D., 1920.

Physiology. Thesis: The influence of temperature and other factors upon the summited contraction curve of the gastronemius muscles of the frog.

HENNEL, CORA BARBARA.

A.B., Indiana University, 1907; A.M., 1908; Ph.D., 1912.

Mathematics. Thesis. Certain transformations and invariants connected with difference equations and other functional equations. Am. Jour. Math., XXXIV, pp. 431-452.

HENRY, EDNA GERTRUDE.

A.B., Indiana University, 1897; A.M., 1914; Ph.D., 1917.

Sociology. Thesis: The theory and practice of medical social service.

HOWARD, WILLIAM EDGAR.

B.S., Northwestern University, 1899; A.M., 1899; Ph.D., Indiana University, 1909.

Astronomy. Thesis: The annual parallax of light stars. Ind. Univ. Studies, No. 14, pp. 173-214.

HUFFORD, MASON EDWARD.

A.B., Indiana University, 1911; A.M., 1912; Ph.D., 1916.

Physics. Thesis: The diffraction-ring system in the shadow of a circular object. Phys. Rev., Ser. II, VII, pp. 544-551.

JACKSON, DENNIS EMERSON.

A.B., Indiana University, 1905; A.M., 1906; Ph.D., 1908.

Physiology. Thesis: The prolonged existence of adrenalin in the blood. Am. Jour. Physiol., XXIII, pp. 226-245.

JACKSON, THOMAS FRANKLIN.

A.B., Indiana University, 1913; A.M., 1914; Ph.D., 1916.

Geology. Thesis: The description and stratigraphic relationships of fossil plants from the lower Pennsylvanian rocks of Indiana. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1916, pp. 405-439.

KETTLEBOROUGH, CHARLES.

A.B., Indiana University, 1904; A.M., 1908; Ph.D., 1916.

Political Science. Thesis: Constitution making in Indiana: a compilation of documents, with introduction and notes.

LEWIS, ISAAC MCKINNEY.

A.B., Indiana University, 1906; A.M., 1907; Ph.D., 1909.

Botany. Thesis: The chromosomes in Pinus and Thuja. Ann. Bot., XXII, pp. 529-556, plate. 1908.

LINTON, ERNEST MARSHALL.

A.B., Butler College, 1911; A.M., Indiana University, 1912; Ph.D., 1915.

Political Science. Thesis: Belgian neutrality.

MALOTT, CLYDE ARNETT.

A.B., Indiana University, 1913; A.M., 1915; Ph.D., 1919.

Geology. Thesis: The "American Bottoms" region of eastern Greene county, Indiana—a type unit in southern Indiana physiography. Ind. Univ. Studies, No. 40, pp. 61.

1919.

MANCE, GROVER CLEVELAND.

A.B., Colgate University, 1906; A.M., Indiana University, 1914; Ph.D., 1915.

Geology. Thesis: The power economy and the utilization of waste in the quarry industry of Indiana. Ind. Univ. Studies, No. 35, pp. 204. 1917.

MASON, THOMAS EDWARD.

A.B., Indiana University, 1905; A.M., 1912; Ph.D., 1914.

Mathematics. Thesis: Character of the solution of certain functional equations. Jour. Math., XXXVI, pp. 419-440. 1914.

McCain, Gertrude Iona.

A.B., Indiana University, 1908; A.M., 1911; Ph.D., 1919.

Mathematics. Thesis: Series of sterated linear fractional functions: character of the functions: asymptotic representation.

McEwan, (Mrs.) Eula Davis.

A.B., Indiana University, 1913; A.M., 1914; Ph.D., 1918.

Geology. Thesis: A study of the Brachiopod genus Platystrophia. Proc. U.S. Nat. Mus., LVI, pp. 383-448, 10 plates. 1919.

MUHSE, (MRS.) EFFA FUNK.

A.B., Indiana University, 1903; A.M., 1907; Ph.D., 1908.

Zoölogy. Thesis: The cutaneous glands of the toad. Jour. Anat., IX, pp. 321-360, 7 plates.

PICKETT, FERMEN LAYTON.

A.B., Indiana University, 1910; A.M., Harvard University, 1913; Ph.D., Indiana University, 1915.

**Botany.** Thesis: Arisaema triphyllum: a biological study. Bull. Torr. Bot. Club, XL, pp. 229-235.

PRESSEY, (MRS.) LUELLA WINIFRED.

A.B., Vassar College, 1916; A.M., Indiana University, 1919; Ph.D., 1920.

**Psychology.** Thesis: The measurement of intelligence and school attainment in the first three school grades.

SCOTT, WILL.

A.B. and A.M., Indiana University, 1908; Ph.D., 1911.

**Zoölogy.** Thesis: The fauna of a solution pond. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1910, pp. 395-440.

SHERWOOD, HENRY NOBLE.

A.B., Indiana University, 1909; A.M., Harvard University, 1910; Ph.D., Indiana University, 1914.

History. Thesis: Studies in negro deportation.

SHOCKLEY, ERNEST VIVIAN.

A.B., Indiana University, 1909; A.M., 1912; Ph.D., 1913.

History: Thesis: The electoral history of Indiana.

SLIPHER, VESTO MELVIN.

A.B., Indiana University, 1901; A.M., 1903; Ph.D., 1909.

Astronomy, Thesis: The spectrum of Mars. Astroph. Jour., XXVIII.

TUCKER, WILLIAM MOTIER.

A.B., Indiana University, 1908; A.M., 1909; Ph.D., 1916.

Geology. Thesis: The hydrology of Indiana. Geol. Ind. Publ. No. 9, Div. Geol. Dept. Cons. Ind.

WEATHERWAX, PAUL.

A.B., Indiana University, 1914; A.M., 1915; Ph.D., 1918.

Botany. Thesis: The evolution of Maize. Bull. Torr. Bot. Club, XLV, pp. 309-342.

WILSON, (MRS.) MILDRED NOTHINAGEL.

A.B., Indiana University, 1913; M.S., University of Chicago, 1915; Ph.D., 1917.

Botany. Thesis: Fecundation and the formation of the primary endosperm nucleus in certain Liliaceæ. Bot. Gaz., LXVI, pp. 143-160. 1918.

WOLFE, HAROLD EICHHOLTZ.

A.B., Indiana University, 1913; A.M., 1914; Ph.D., 1919.

Mathematics. Thesis: A study of plane circle-to-circle transformations by means of tetracyclic coördinates. New Era Press. 1920.

WOODBURN, WILLIAM LOGAN.

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A.B., Indiana University, 1908; A.M., 1909; Ph.D., 1912.

Botany. Thesis: Spermatogenesis in certain hepaticæ. Ann. Bot., XXV, pp. 299-311.

WOOLEY, ELMER OTTO.

A.B., Indiana University, 1907; A.M., Harvard University, 1913; Ph.D., Indiana University, 1915.

German. Thesis: The sphere of music and musical terms in Goethe's lyric poems. Bloomington, pp. 90.

III. BIBLIOGRAPHY OF PUBLICATIONS BY PRESENT MEMBERS OF THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, AND OF GRADUATE STUDENTS SINCE JANUARY, 1904, BY DEPARTMENTS

A bibliography of the publications of members of Indiana University from its founding to 1904 was published in 'Indiana University, 1820-1904' pp. 197-348. Supplementary lists were published in 'Report of the Dean of the Graduate School to the President-1912'.

The present list enumerates the papers of the present faculty of the Graduate School and of those graduate students who have been in residence since 1904. The authors are arranged by Departments and alphabetically under Departments.

# TABLE OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abn.—Abnormal Acad.—Academy Adm.—Administration Adv.—Advancement Agr.—Agricultural

Alum.—Alumni Am.—American

Anat.—Anatomy

Anatomical

Ann.—Annual

Annals
App.—Applied

Asso.—Association

Biol.—Biological

Biology

Bot.—Botanical Botanist

Botany Brit.—British

Bull.—Bulletin

Char.—Charities Chem.—Chemical

Chemical Chemistry

Chemist

Circ.—Circular Col.—College

Collect.—Collection

Com.—Commission

Comp.—Comparative

Conf.—Conference

Cong.—Congress
Cons.—Conservation

Corr.—Correction

Dept.—Department

Div.—Division

Econ.—Economic

Economics

Economy

Ed.—Edition

Educ.—Educational

Education Educator

Elec.—Electrical

Liec.—Liectricai

Electrochem.—Electrochemistry Elem.—Elementary

Eng.—Engineer

Engineering

Exp.—Experimental

Exped.—Expedition

Ext.—Extension

Fed.—Federal

Gaz.—Gazette

Geog.—Geography

Geol.—Geologist

Geology

Ger.—Germanic

Hist.—History

TT:

Historical

Hort.—Horticultural

Ind.—Indiana

Indust.—Industrial

Internat.—International

Jour.—Journal

Lab.—Laboratory

Lang.—Language

Mag.—Magazine

Man.-Manual Math.—Mathematics Med.--Medicine Medical Mem.—Memoirs Micr.—Microscopy Mimeo.—Mimeographed Miscell.—Miscellaneous Mo.-Monthly Mod.—Modern Morph.—Morphology Mun.—Municipal Mus.—Museum Nat.-National Natural Naturalist N.S.—New Series Ped.—Pedagogical Pharm.—Pharmacological Phil.—Philosophical Philosophy Phila.—Philadelphia Philol.—Philology Phot.—Photography Phys.—Physical Physiol.—Physiology Pol.—Political Politics Pop.—Popular Proc.—Proceedings Prof.—Professors Psy.—Psychological

Psychology

Publ.—Publications

Pt.-Part

Quart.—Quarterly Rec.—Record Records Reg.—Register Rep.—Report Res.—Research Resources Rev.—Review Rom.—Romanic Sci.—Science Scientific Scientist Sch.—School Sem.—Seminary Ser.—Series Soc.—Social Society Sociol.—Sociological Sociology Smithson.—Smithsonian Sta.—Station Sup.—Supervision Supt.—Superintendent Surv.—Survey Torr.—Torrey Tr.—Training Trans.—Transactions Univ.—University Val.—Valley Voc.—Vocational W.—West Wash.—Washington Weath.-Weather Zoöl,—Zoölogy

## DEPARTMENT OF ANATOMY

JAC	ов А.	BADER	TSCHER, P	rofessor of	Anatom	у.			
	Ph.	B Ohio	University	, 1909; Ph.	M., 1910;	Ph.D.,	Cornell	University,	1914

- 1. Peculiarity in the mode of entrance of the optic nerve into the eyeball in some rodents. Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. and Med., IX, pp. 4-6.
- Muscle degeneration and its relation to the origin of eosinophilic leucocytes in amphibia (Salamandra atra). Am. Jour. Anat., XV, pp. 69-86, 7 figures.
- 3. The development of the thymus in the pig, I. Morphogenesis. Am. Jour. Anat., XVII, pp. 317-337, 5 text-figures, 2 plates. 1915.
- 4. The development of the thymus in the pig, II. Histogenesis. Am. Jour. Anat., XVII, pp. 437-493, 3 plates.
- The fate of the ultimobranchial bodies in the pig (Sus scrofa). Am. Jour. Anat., XXIII, pp. 89-131, 4 plates.
- The ultimobranchial bodies in postnatal pigs (Sus scrofa). Am. Jour. Anat., XXV, pp. 13-25, 4 figures.
- Eosinophilic leucocytes in the thymus of postnatal pigs. Anat. Rec., XVIII, pp. 23-34.
- Burton Dorr Myers, Assistant Dean of the School of Medicine, and Professor of Anatomy.
  - Ph.B., Buchtel College, 1893; A.M., Cornell University, 1900; M.D., University of Leipsic, 1902.
- The Chiasma of the toad (Bufo lentiginosus) and of some other vertebrates. Zeitschrift, f. Morphologie u. Anthropologie, III, pp. 183-207, 2 plates.
- Beitrag zur Kenntniss des Chiasmas und der Commissuren am Boden des dritten Ventrikels. Archiv f. Anat. u. Physiologie für 1902, Anatomische Abth., pp. 347-376, 15 plates.
   1902.
- 3. Fixation of tissues by injection. Jour. App. Micr. Nov., 1903.
- Review of Gerrish's 'Textbook of anatomy'. Johns Hopkins Bull., p. 145.

  May, 1903.
- Review of Karl Camillo Schneider's 'Lehrbuch der vergleichenden Histologie der Thiere'. Sci., N.S.
   Sept., 1903.
- On Rauber's 'Lehrbuch der Anatomie des Menschen'. Anat. Rec., II, pp. 377-379.
- 7: Review of S. H. Gage's 'The microscope'. Anat. Rec., V, p. 562. 1911.
- 8. The position of the normal stomach, with observations on the movements of the diaphragm. Anat. Rec., VIII, 1914, pp. 128-129; Jour. Ind. State Med. Asso., VIII, p. 460.

- Histological changes in testes following vasectomy. Anat. Rec., X, pp. 228-229.
   1915-16.
- Education qualifications for practice of medicine. Jour. Ind. State Med. Asso., XI, p. 410.
   1918.
- A study of the development of certain features of the cerebellum. Contributions to Embryology, Carnegie Institution, IX, pp. 365-375.
   1920.

# DARMON A. RHINEHART.

A.B., Indiana University, 1910; A.M., 1912; M.D., 1913.

 The nerves of the thyroid and parathyroid bodies. Am. Jour. Anat., XIII, pp. 91-102, 5 figures.

# DEPARTMENT OF BOTANY

Frank Marion Andrews, Associate Professor of Botany.
A.B., Indiana University, 1894; A.M., 1895; B.A.M. and Ph.D., University of Leipsic, 1902.

- Development of the embryo-sac of Jeffersonia diphylla. Bot. Gaz., XX, pp. 423-425.
- Karyokinesis in Magnolia and Liriodendron with special reference to the behavior of the chromosomes. Beihefte z. Botan. Centralblatt, XI, pp. 134-142.
- Ueber die Wirkung der Centrifugalkraft auf Pflanzen. Jahrb. f. wiss. Bot., XXXVIII, pp. 40.
- Physiological apparatus. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1904, pp. 305-314.
   1905.
- The effect of gases on nuclear division. Ann. of Bot., XIX, pp. 521-530.
   1905.
- Die Anatomie von Epigaa repens Beihefte z. Botan. Centralblatt, XIX, Abt. 1, Heft. 2, pp. 514-520.
- 7. Plasmodesmen. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1905, pp. 191-194. 1906.
- 8. The effect of alkaloids and other vegetable poisons on protoplasm.

  Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1905, pp. 195-196.
- 9. Some monstrosities in Trillium. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1905, pp. 187-188.
- A natural proof that the root tip alone is sensitive to the gravitation stimulus. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1905, pp. 189-190.
   1906.
- 11. Some monstrosities in Trillium. Plant World, IX, pp. 101-103. 1906.
- 12. An abnormal Porella platyphylla. Bot. Gaz., XLV, p. 340.
- Apparatus for illustrating Boyle's Law. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1909, pp. 369-371.
- Some monstrosities in plants. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1909, pp. 373-374.
- 15. A list of algæ. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1909, pp. 375-380. 1910.
- Development of the embryo-sac of Hybanthus concolor. Bull. Torr. Bot. Club, XXXVII, pp. 477-478.
   1910.
- The botanical garden of the University of Amsterdam. Plant World, XIII, pp. 53-56.
   1910.
- . 18. Twin hybrids and their anatomical distinctions. Bot. Gaz., L, pp. 193-201.
  - 19. Conjugation of two different species of Spirogyra. Bull. Torr. Bot. Club, XXXVIII, p. 299.
- 20. Some variations in plants. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1911, pp. 279-281.

- Protoplasmic streaming in Mucor. Bull. Torr. Bot. Club, XXXIX,
   pp. 455-499.
- Conjugation in Spirogyra. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1912, pp. 89-91.
   1913.
- Some observations concerning the reactions of the leaf hairs of Salvinia natans. (With Max M. Ellis.) Bull. Torr. Bot. Club, XL, pp. 441-445.
- 24. Forests and floods. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1913, pp. 203-212. 1914.
- Stomata of *Trillium nivale*. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1914, pp. 209-211.
   1915.
- Die Wirkung der Zentrifugalkraft auf Pflanzen. Jahrb. für wiss. Bot., LVI, pp. 221-253.
- The effect of centrifugal force on Oscillatoria. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1915, pp. 151-152.
- 28. Closterium moniliferum. Proc. Acad. Sci. for 1916, pp. 323-324, 1917.
- 29. Studies on pollen, I. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1917, p. 163. 1918.
- Stoppage of a sewer pipe by roots of Acer saccharum. Proc. Ind. Acad.
   Sei. for 1917, p. 165.
- 31. Anthoeyanin of Beta vulgaris. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1917, p. 167.
  1918.
- 32. Improved forms of Maximow's automatic pipette. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1917, pp. 169-173.
- The effect of centrifugal force on plants. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1917, p. 175.
- Some large trees of Indiana. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1918, pp. 261-263.
- The effect of soaking in water and of aeration on the growth of Zea
   Mays. (With Colonzo C. Beals.) Bull. Torr. Bot. Club, XLVI, pp.
   91-100.

#### COLONZO CHELICE BEALS.

A.B., Indiana University, 1917.

The effect of soaking in water and of aeration on the growth of Zea
 Mays. (With F. M. Andrews.) Bull. Torr. Bot. Club, XLVI, pp.
 91-100.

# CAROLINE ANNA BLACK.

A.B., Indiana University, 1908; A.M., 1909; Ph.D., 1912.

- The development of the imbedded antheridium in *Dryopteris stipularis* (Willd.) Maxon, and 'Nephrodium Molle'. Bull. Torr. Bot. Club,
   XXXVI, pp. 557-571, plates 26-28.
- The morphology of Riccia frostii Aust. Ann. Bot., XXVII, pp. 511-532, plates XXXVII-XXXVIII.
   1913.

#### HARRY BATES BROWN.

A.B., Indiana University, 1906; A.M., 1907.

 Algae periodicity in certain ponds and streams. Bull. Torr. Bot. Club, XXXV, pp. 223-248, 3 figures.

# (MRS.) RUTH WOOLERY BYBEE.

A.B., Indiana University, 1912; A.M., 1914.

Meiotic divisions in the microspore mother-cells of Smilacina racemosa
 (L) Desf. Ann. Bot., XXIX, pp. 471-482.

#### FRED DONAGHY.

A.B., Indiana State Normal School, 1914; A.M., Indiana University, 1915.

 The morphology of Riccia fluitans L. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1915, pp. 131-133.

# MAX MAPES ELLIS.

A.B., Indiana University, 1907; A.M., 1908; Ph.D., 1911.

 Some observations concerning the reactions of the leaf hairs of Salvinia natans. (With Frank M. Andrews.) Bull. Torr. Bot. Club, XL, pp. 441-445.

# CHARLES EDWARD LEWIS.

A.B., Indiana University, 1902; A.M., 1903.

 Studies on some anomalous dicotyledonous plants. Bot. Gaz., XXXVII, pp. 127-138, 2 plates.

# ISAAC MCKINNEY LEWIS.

A.B., Indiana University, 1906; A.M., 1907; Ph.D., 1909.

 The behavior of the chromosomes in Pinus and Thuja. Ann. Bot., XXII, pp. 529-556, 4 plates.

# DAVID MYERS MOTTIER, Professor of Botany.

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#### LEO LEHR CARRICK.

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A.B., Indiana University, 1919; A.M., 1920.

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### WILLIAM FREDERICK OESTERLE.

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A.B., Indiana University, 1901; A.M., 1902.

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#### LEE THOMAS SMITH.

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#### STANLEY SOWDER.

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# ELMER HENRY STUART.

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- Hubert Guy Childs, Professor of Secondary Education.

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- 2. Expository writing. Macmillan, pp. 555.
- 3. College life, its conditions and problems. Macmillan, pp. 524. 1914.
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# WILL TALIAFERRO HALE, Assistant Professor of English.

- A.B., Vanderbilt University, 1902; A.M., 1902; B.D., Yale University, 1905; A.M., Columbia University, 1912; Ph.D., Yale University, 1914.
- 'Of reformation touching church-discipline in England and the causes that hitherto have hindred it', by John Milton. Edited with introduction, notes, and glossary. Yale Studies in English, No. 54, pp. lxxxix, 224.
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#### DEPARTMENT OF FINE ARTS

ALFRED MANSFIELD BROOKS, Professor of Fine Arts. A.B., Harvard University, 1894; A.M., 1899.

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# Robert E. Burke, Associate Professor of Fine Arts.

Graduate of Pratt Institute, 1907; A.B., Indiana University, 1913; A.M., 1914.

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### DEPARTMENT OF GEOLOGY

#### HALBERT PLEASANT BYBEE,

A.B., Indiana University, 1912; A.M., 1913; Ph.D., 1915.

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#### HORACE NOBLE CORYELL,

A.B., Indiana University, 1914; A.M., 1915.

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# EDGAR ROSCOE CUMINGS, Professor of Geology.

A.B., Union College, 1897; Ph.D., Yale University, 1903.

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#### JESSE JAMES GALLOWAY.

A.B., Indiana University, 1909; A.M., 1911, Ph.D., 1913.

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#### FRANK COOK GREENE.

A.B., Indiana University, 1908; A.M., 1909.

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# THOMAS F. JACKSON.

A.B., Indiana University, 1913: A.M., 1914; Ph.D., 1916.

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# WILLIAM NEWTON LOGAN, Professor of Geology.

A.B., University of Kansas, 1896; A.M., 1896; Ph.D., University of Chicago, 1900.

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# CLYDE ARNETT MALOTT, Associate Professor of Geology. A.B., Indiana University, 1913; A.M., 1915; Ph.D., 1919.

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## GROVER CLEVELAND MANCE.

A.B., Colgate University, 1906; A.M., Indiana University, 1914; Ph.D., 1915.

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## CHARLES WILLIAM SHANNON.

A.B., Indiana University, 1906; A.M., 1907.

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- Drainage area of the east fork of White river. Proc. Ind. Acad. Sci. for 1906, pp. 53-70, 10 plates, 1 map.
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# WILLIAM MOTIER TUCKER, Assistant Professor of Geology. A.B., Indiana University, 1908; A.M., 1909; Ph.D., 1916.

- Water power of southern Indiana. 35th Ann. Rep. Dept. Geol. and Nat. Res. Ind., pp. 11-77, 2 figures, 5 maps. 1910.
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# STEPHEN SARGENT VISHER, Assistant Professor of Geology.

B.S., University of Chicago, 1909; M.S., 1910; A.M., University of South Dakota, 1912; Ph.D., University of Chicago, 1914.

- A list of the birds of western South Dakota. The Auk, XXVI, pp. 144-153. April, 1909.
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- 38. The Australian environment: a review summary. Mo. Weath. Rev., XLVII, pp. 490-494. July, 1919.
- 39. A report on the minable coal under the Wabash river. Indiana Official
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   July-Aug., 1920.
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- 44. Climate and geology. Sci., N.S., LI, pp. 522-523. May 21, 1920.



#### DEPARTMENT OF GERMAN

- CARL WILHELM FERDINAND OSTHAUS, Professor of German.

  Graduate of the Gymnasium of Hildesheim, 1880; A.M., Indiana University, 1890.
- Review of Hager's 'Freytag's Aus dem Staat Friedrichs des Grossen'.
   Mod. Lang. Notes, V, pp. 301-303.
   May, 1890.
- Gerstäcker's 'Germelshausen'. With introduction and English notes. Boston, pp. vii, 56.
- 3. Eichendorff's 'Aus dem Leben eines Taugenichts'. With introduction, English notes, and vocabulary. Boston, pp. ix, 176. 1892.
- 4. Review of Carruth's 'Schiller's Wilhelm Tell'. Jour. Ger. Philol., II, pp. 125-126.
- Ein litterarischer Vandalismus? (Erwiderung). Pædagogische Monatshefte, I, pp. 8-10. March, 1900.
- Abridged editions of modern German authors. Reviews of nine different novels. Jour. Ger. Philol., IV, pp. 248-259.
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- 7. Where empire and republic meet. Western Camera Notes, IV, pp. 221-225, 5 plates. Sept., 1903.
- Revision of Mary A. Frost's edition of Scheffel's 'Trompeter von Säkkingen'. With introduction and notes. New York, pp. xxiii, 319, 1904.
- 9. German prose composition. With notes and vocabulary. (With Ernest H. Biermann.) New York, Cincinnati, Chicago, pp. 191. 1909.
- A key to German prose composition. (With E. H. Biermann.) New York, Cincinnati, Chicago, pp. 55.
- Sudermann's 'Frau Sorge'. With introduction, English notes, and vocabulary. (With Eugene Leser.) Boston, pp. vi, 353.
- 12. Review of 'Thayer's Fontane's Grete Minde'. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXVII, pp. 87-89. March, 1912.
- Note on Lowell's Arnold's 'Einst im Mai'. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXVIII, pp. 228-229. Nov., 1913.
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- BERT JOHN Vos. Professor of German.
  - ¹ A.B., University of Michigan, 1888; Ph.D., Johns Hopkins University, 1892.
- Review of M. D. Learned's 'The saga of Walther of Aquitaine'. Mod. Lang. Notes, VIII, pp. 377-380.
- Review of Henrici's edition of Hartmann von Aue's 'Iwein'. Mod. Lang. Notes, IX, pp. 185-189.

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- 5. Materials for German conversation. New York, pp. v, 176. 1900.
- Rime-parallelism in Old High German verse. Baltimore, 'Studies in honor of Basil Lanneau Gildersleeve', pp. 435-442.
- 7. 'The religion of the Teutons', by P. D. Chantepie de la Saussaye, translated from the Dutch. Boston, pp. vii, 504.
- Review of W. Kurrelmeyer's 'The historical development of the types of the first person plural imperative in German'. Zeitschrift für deutsche Wortorschung, II, pp. 323-326.
- Edition of 'Kinder und Hausmärchen der Brüder Grimm'. New York, pp. 191.
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- Schiller's 'Wilhelm Tell'. Edited with introduction and notes. Boston, pp. lvii, 387.
- Review of E. von der Hellen's 'Register zu Goethe's Sämtlichen Werken'.
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- Review of Rædder's 'Schwarzwaldleut'. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXVIII, p. 264.
- Review of Kurrelmeyer's 'Die Doppeldrucke in ihrer Bedeutung für die Textgeschichte von Wielands Werken'. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXIX, p. 32.
- Review of Riemer's 'Wörterbuch und Reimverzeichnis zu dem Armen Heinrich Hartmanns von Aue'. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXIX, pp. 25-27.
- Review of Gierach's edition of 'Der Arme Heinrich of Hartmann von Aue'. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXIX, pp. 63-64.
   1914.
- Review of F. G. G. Schmidt's 'Melchior Meyr's Ludwig und Annemarie'.
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- Review of M. M. Skinner's 'Spielhagen's Das Skelett im Hause'. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXIX, p. 128.
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- Review of Schiller's 'Anthologie Gedichte herausgegeben von Wolfgang Stammler'. Mod Lang. Notes, XXIX, pp. 144-145.
   1914.

- Review of Evans and Meerhaut's 'Ein Charakterbild von Deutschland'. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXIX, p. 199.
- Notice of Theodor Storm's 'Nachträge zu seinen Werken'. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXIX, pp. 230-231.
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- Review of Prokosch's 'Deutsches Lese- und Uebungsbuch'. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXX, p. 32.
- Notice of Tegner's 'The Children of the Lord's Supper', translated by Longfellow (American-Scandinavian Foundation). Mod. Lang. Notes, XXX, p. 64.
- Review of 'Beatrijs, A Middle Dutch Legend', edited by A. J. Barnouw. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXX, pp. 95-96.
- Notice of Jahrbuch der Goethe-Gesellschaft. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXX,
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- Review of 'Heine's Die Harzreise', edited by L. R. Gregor. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXX, p. 200.
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- Review of 'Schiller's Wilhelm Tell', edited by Palmer. Mod. Lang. Notes, XXX, p. 264.
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- Review of 'Heinrich Seidel's Leberecht Hühnchen', edited by W. F.
   Luebke. Mod. Lang. Jour., I, pp. 72-73.
- 34. Review of 'Gerstäcker's Der Wilddieb', edited by W. R. Myers. Mod. Lang. Jour., I, pp. 226-227.
- Review of 'Gœthe's Hermann und Dorothea,' edited by Ernst Feise.
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- Review of T. E. Oliver's 'Suggestions and References for Modern Language Teachers'. Mod. Lang. Jour., II, pp. 332-333.
- 38. Review of 'Gothe's Hermann und Dorothea', edited by Julianne A. Roller. Mod. Lang. Jour., III, 189-191.
- Review of 'Lieder and Pettengill's Manual of Military German'. Mod. Lang. Jour., IV, pp. 381-383.



#### DEPARTMENT OF GREEK

Horace Addison Hoffman, Dean Emeritus of the College of Liberal Arts, and Professor Emeritus of Greek.

A.B., Indiana University, 1881; A.M., Harvard University, 1884; LL.D., Indiana University, 1920.

- The religious and ethical views of Æschylus. Ind. Univ. Bull. March, 1888.
- The study of man through language and literature. Proc. Ind. Col. Asso. for 1889.
- 3. A catalogue of the fishes of Greece, with notes on the names now in use and those employed by classical authors. (With David Starr Jordan.) Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila.

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- 4. Everyday Greek. The University of Chicago Press, pp. 107. 1919.
- 5. The ultimate test. Ind. Univ. Alum. Quart., VII, No. 4, pp. 518-537.

  Oct., 1920.

Frank William Tilden, Associate Professor of Greek.
A.B., Hamilton College, 1892; A.M., Harvard University, 1897.

- Greek literature in English. Ind. Univ. Book Store, pp. 83.
   First edition, 1916; new and revised edition, 1920. 1916, 1920.
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# DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY

F. L	EE Benns, Assistant Professor of History.
_	A.B., Syracuse University, 1914; A.M., 1916; Ph.D., Clark University, 1920.
1.	A student peace conference. The Outlook, CXXI, pp. 260-262.
Tog	Feb. 12, 1919. AN ESAREY, Associate Professor of Western History.
LOG.	A.B., Indiana University, 1905; A.M., 1909; Ph.D., 1913.
1.	Vincennes' first city government. Ind. Mag. Hist., V, pp. 26. 1909.
2.	Internal improvements in early Indiana. Ind. Hist. Soc. Publ., V, pp. 47-158.
3.	State banking in Indiana, 1814-72. Ind. Univ. Studies, No. 15, pp. 215-305. April, 1912.
4.	Indiana captives in early Indiana. Ind. Mag. Hist., IX, pp. 95-112. 1913.
5.	Editor of Indiana Magazine of History, Vols. IX-XVI, inclusive. 1913-1921.
6.	Organization of the Jacksonian party in Indiana. Miss. Val. Hist. Soc. Proc., VII, pp. 220-243.
7.	Pioneers of Morgan county (edited). Ind. Hist. Soc. Publ., V, pp. 231-516.
8.	Courts and lawyers of Indiana. (With Leander J. Monks and Ernest V. Shockley.) 3 vols. Indianapolis, Federal Publishing Co., pp. 1437.
9.	History of Indiana from its exploration to 1850. Indianapolis, pp. ix, 572.
10.	Organizing a state. Proc. Ohio Valley Hist, Asso., VI, pp. 98-122.
11.	Indiana local history: a guide to its study. Ind. Univ. Ext. Div. Bull., I, No. 7, pp. 19. March, 1916.
12.	The pioneer aristocracy. Ind. Mag. Hist., XIII, pp. 270-287. 1917.
13.	Pioneer politics in Indiana. Ind. Mag. Hist., XIII, pp. 99-128. 1917.
14.	History of Indiana from 1850 to the present. Indianapolis, pp. xi,572-1148.
15.	Literary spirit among the early settlers of the Ohio Valley. Miss. Val. Hist. Rev., V, pp. 143-157.
ALB	ERT LUDWIG KOHLMEIER, Professor of History.
	A.B., Indiana University, 1908; A.M., Harvard University, 1911; Ph.D., 1920.
1.	Review of Wertenbaker's 'Virginia under the Stuarts'. Ind. Mag. Hist., X, pp. 95-97. June, 1914.
2.	Review of Corwin's 'French policy and the American alliance'. Ind.

3. What's wrong with Germany? Ind. Univ. Alum. Quart., IV, No. 4, (73)

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pp. 489-508.

4. The undertow of the Puritan influence in America. Miss. Val. Hist. Proc. 1919-1920.

WILLIAM ORLANDO LYNCH, Professor of History.

A.B., Indiana University, 1903; A.M., University of Wisconsin, 1908.

- The flow of colonists to and from Indiana before the civil war. Ind. Mag. Hist., XI, pp. 1-7.
   March, 1915.
- Indiana in the middle period. Proc. 62d Session, Ind. State Teachers' Asso. Oct., 1915.
- Popular sovereignty and the colonization of Kansas from 1854 to 1860.
   Proc. Miss. Val. Hist. Asso.
   1917-1918.
- The character and leadership of Stephen A. Douglas. Proc. Miss. Val. Hist. Asso. 1919-1920.

# WILLIAM THOMAS MORGAN, Associate Professor of History.

A.B., Ohio University (Athens), 1909; A.M., Harvard University, 1910; Ph.D., Yale University, 1916.

- Review of Trégniz' 'L'Irlande dans la crise universelle'. Pol. Sci. Quart. March, 1919.
- Review of F. Hackett's 'Ireland, a study in nationalism'. Pol. Sci. Quart. March, 1919.
- Political parties and leaders in the reign of Queen Anne (1702-1710).
   Yale Hist. Studies, VII, pp. 427.
- A syllabus in modern European history from Charlemagne to the present. Ind. Univ., pp. 154.
- Review of W. C. Braithwaite's 'The second period of Quakerism'. Pol. Sci. Quart.
   Dec., 1920.

## James Albert Woodburn, Professor of American History.

A.B., Indiana University, 1876; A.M., 1885; Ph.D., Johns Hopkins University, 1890; LL.D., Colgate University, 1909.

- 1. The race problem in the South. Ind. Student. Nov., 1885.
- 2. Government by the people. Ind. Student. Nov., 1886.
- 3. The Johns Hopkins University. Ind. Student. Jan., 1887.
- 4. Needed changes in the school law of Indiana. Ind. Sch. Jour.
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- 5. The slave trade. Series. United Presbyterian. Jan., Feb., 1888.
- Review of Sir Henry Maine's 'Lectures on international law delivered before the University of Cambridge'. Christian Union. June 27, 1889.
- 7. The study of history. Christian Union. Jan. 9, 1890.
- The speaker and the quorum: an essay on the notable decision of Hon.
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- 9. Chautauqua: the growth of its summer school. Christian Union.
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- 11. States made from colonies. Chautauquan. Dec., 1891.

- 12. States made from territories. Chautauquan. Feb., 1892.
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- 18. The tariff in legislation. Chautauquan. April, 1896.
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- 20. To what extent may undergraduate students of history be trained in the use of the sources? Ann. Rep. Am. Hist. Asso. for 1897, pp. 45-49.
  1897.
- 21. France in the American Revolution. Chautauquan. June, 1897.
- 22. The American Revolution, 1763-1783 (chapters and passages relating to America from Lecky's history of England in the 18th century). Edited with bibliographical and historical notes. New York, pp. xviii, 518.
  1898.
- The making of the constitution: a syllabus for Madison's Journal.
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- 24. Washington's foreign policy and the Philippines. Independent, L. Oct. 27, 1898.
- 25. Our plighted word and the Philippines. Independent, L, pp. 1381-1383.

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- 26. The American republic and its government. New York, pp. iv, 410.
  New edition revised, 1914.
  1902, 1914.
- Political parties and party problems in the United States. New York, new edition, revised, 1913, pp. ix, 314.
   New York, 1902, 1913.
- Party politics in Indiana during the Civil War. Ann. Rep. Am. Hist. Asso. for 1902, I, pp. 225-251.
- Review of U. B. Phillip's 'Georgia and state rights'. Am. Hist. Rev., VIII, pp. 785-786.
   July, 1903.
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## DEPARTMENT OF HOME ECONOMICS

GEORGIA	ELIZABETH	FINLEY,	Instructor	in	Home	Economics.
B S	Lewis Inst.	itute 1914	4			

- Outline for a study of the house. (With Mabel T. Wellman and Edith C. Williams.) Bull. No. 20, Ind. Dept. Pub. Inst., pp. 82-112. 1915.
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## ELIZABETH SAGE, Assistant Professor of Home Economics. B.S., Columbia University, 1917.

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- Physiological law of habit and its application to common school studies. Educ., XXVII, pp. 52-56.
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# Edith Cadwallader Williams, Instructor in Home Economics. A.B., Smith College, 1897; A.M. Columbia University, 1921.

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### DEPARTMENT OF LATIN

LILLIAN GAY BERRY, Associate Professor of Latin. A.B., Indiana University, 1899; A.M., 1905.

- 1. Review of E. H. Sturtevant's 'P. Terenti Afri Andria'. Ind. Univ. Alum. Quart., II, No. 1, pp. 65-68. Jan., 1915.
- 2 Educational measurements and the direct method of teaching Latin. Univ. of Ill. Bull.
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- 6. For teachers of Latin. Circ. Ind. Univ. Ext. Div. 1920.
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- Selatie Edgar Stout, Assistant Dean of the College of Liberal Arts, and Professor of Latin.
  - B.S., Grand River College, 1891; A.B., William Jewell College, 1901; Ph.D., Princeton University, 1910.
  - 1. The governors of Mæsia. Princeton, N.J., pp. xii, 97.
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#### DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS

- Schuyler Colfax Davisson, Professor of Mathematics.

  A.B., Indiana University, 1890; A.M., 1892; Sc.D., University of Tuebingen, 1900.
- 1. Die Geodätische Linie der Mannigfaltigkeit  $ds^2 = dx^2 + \sin^2 x dy^2 + dz^2$ Tuebingen, pp. 26. 1900.
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- ULYSSES SHERMAN HANNA, Associate Professor of Mathematics.

  A.B., Indiana University, 1895; A.M., 1898; Ph.D., University of Pennsylvania, 1905.
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- CORA BARBARA HENNEL, Assistant Professor of Mathematics. A.B., Indiana University, 1907; A.M., 1908; Ph.D., 1912.
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  - A.B., Indiana University, 1892, A.M., 1893; Ph.D., University of Leipsic, 1898.
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#### DEPARTMENT OF PHILOSOPHY

WILLIAM FREDERICK BOOK, Professor of Educational Psychology.
A.B., Indiana University, 1900; Ph.D., Clark University, 1906.

- Why pupils drop out of the high school. Ped. Sem., XI, pp. 204-233.
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- The high school teacher from the pupil's point of view. Ped. Sem., XII, pp. 239-298.
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- The genesis and development of conscious attitudes (Bewustseinslagen).
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- 9. Vocational education. Educ.-Jour., XIV, pp. 299-307. Feb., 1914.
- Development of vocational education in Indiana. Jour. Educ. Adm. and Sup., I, pp. 419-438. Sept., 1915.
- Meaning and place of vocational education in a state scheme of public education. Educ.-Jour., XVI, pp. 304-312. Feb., 1916.
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^{*}A series of special educational bulletins issued by the State Board of Education, Indianapolis, 1913–17.

[†]As organizer and state director of vocational education in Indiana, 1913–17. Mr. Book organized and directed these Vocational Surveys. (See Introduction to the report of the Richmond and Indianapolis surveys for vocational education.) Each survey was participated in by many individuals, who made occupational analyses under the direction of a special director, who presented the findings of the survey to the state director and a state survey committee. The conclusions of each survey and recommendations for organizing and conducting vocational instruction were in each case written or edited by Mr. Book, after the individual reports and suggestions were made by members of the committee, and fully discussed in conference of the state survey committee.

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### WILLIAM LOWE BRYAN, President of the University.

A.B., Indiana University, 1884; A.M., 1886; Ph.D., Clark University, 1892; LL.D., Illinois College, 1904; LL.D., Hanover College, 1908; LL.D., University of Notre Dame, 1917; LL.D., University of Michigan, 1918.

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- On the development of voluntary motor ability. Am. Jour. Psy., V, pp. 125-204. Nov., 1892.
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- 8. Studies on the physiology and psychology of the telegraphic language.

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[†]As organizer and state director of vocational education in Indiana, 1913-17, Mr. Book organized and directed these Vocational Surveys. (See Introduction to the report of the Richmond and Indianapolis surveys for vocational education.) Each survey was participated in by many individuals, who made occupational analyses under the direction of a special director, who presented the findings of the survey to the state director and a state survey committee. The conclusions of each survey and recommendations for organizing and conducting occational instruction were in each case written or edited by Mr. Book, after the individual reports and suggestions were made by members of the committee, and fully discussed in conference of the state survey committee.

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### OTHNIEL R. CHAMBERS.

Senior, Indiana University, 1921. Assistant.

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# WILLIAM BAIRD ELKIN, Professor of Philosophy.

A.B., Manitoba University, 1889; Ph.D., Cornell University, 1894.

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# Jacob Robert Kantor, Associate Professor of Psychology. Ph.B., University of Chicago, 1914; Ph.D., 1917.

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# HARRY DEXTER KITSON, Professor of Psychology.

A.B., Hiram College, 1909; A.M., University of Minnesota, 1913; Ph.D. University of Chicago, 1915.

- 1. The importance of the teacher. Collier's, XLVI, pp. 18-30. Feb. 25, 1911.
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### OFFICE OF PUBLICATIONS

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  A.B., Indiana University, 1906.
  - Indiana University and the war. Ind. Univ. News-Letter, VI, No. 2, pp. 8.
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### DEPARTMENT OF ROMANCE LANGUAGES

- Francisco Aguilera, Graduate Scholar in Romance Languages (1919-20).

  B.Hum., University of Chile.
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# Antonio Alonzo, Acting Instructor in Spanish. Graduate, Escuela Normal de Avila, 1916.

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HENRI L. BOURDIN, Instructor in French. Licencié ès lettres, Paris, 1910; Diplomé d' Etudes Supérieures, 1911.

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JUAN CANO, Assistant Professor of Spanish.

A.B., Pontifical University (Toledo, Spain), 1909; A.M., Columbia University, 1919.

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JOHN M. HILL, Associate Professor of Spanish.

A.B., Vanderbilt University, 1908; A.M., 1910; Ph.D., University of Wisconsin, 1912.

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- 2. Translation vs. oral practice. Hispania, II, No. 5, pp. 249-253. Nov., 1919.
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ELIJAH CLARENCE HILLS, Professor of Romance Languages.

A.B., Cornell University, 1892; Ph.D., University of Colorado, 1906; Litt.D., Rollins College, 1906.

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ALEXANDER HAGGERTY KRAPPE, Instructor in French.

A.M., University of Iowa. 1917; Ph.D., University of Chicago, 1919.

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- 3. The ploughman king: a study in comparative literature and folklore. Revue Hispanique, XLVI, pp. 516-546.
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# Lander Macclintock, Assistant Professor of Romanee Languages. A.B., University of Chicago, 1910; A.M., 1913; Ph.D., 1917.

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# George Davis Morris, Professor of French.

A.B., Indiana University, 1890; A.M., 1895; Docteur de l'Université de Par.s, 1912.

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# Charles Alfred Mosemiller, Associate Professor of Romance Languages. A.B., Indiana University, 1890.

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- 2. The origin of the French word canneberge. Mod. Lang. Notes, XIX, pp. 46-47. Feb., 1904.
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- Wenceslao Vial Ovalle, Graduate Scholar in Romance Languages, 1919-20. Licenciado en Leyes y Ciencia: Políticas, Unize sidad de Chile, 1919.
- El comercio neutral y el contrabando de guerra. (Memoria de Prueba para optar al grado de Licenciado en Leyes y Ciencias Politicas de la Universidad de Chile.) Santiago de Chile, Imprenta Cervantes. 1919.
- Grace Maxwell Philputt, Instructor in French. A.B., Indiana University, 1908; A.M., 1914.
- A course of study in French for high schools. Publ. issued by Horace Ellis, Supt. of Public Instruction in Ind., Bull. No. 35, pp. 98-103.
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- WILLIAM H. Scheifley, Associate Professor of Romance Languages.

  A.B., Indiana University, 1901; A.M., 1903; Ph.D., University of Pennsylvania, 1914.
- Brieux and contemporary French society. New York and London, G. P. Putnam's Sons, pp. vii, 436.
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- LESTER B. STRUTHERS, Assistant Professor of Romance Languages. 844, A.B., Harvard University, 1910; A.M., 1911; Ph.D., 1916.
  - 1. The rhetoric structure of the Encomia of Claudius Claudian. Harvard Studies in Classical Philol., XIX. 1919.

### DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SERVICE

HELEN HARE, Instructor in Social Service.

Ph.B., University of Chicago, 1915; A.M., Indiana University, 1919.

 A study of handicapped children: based on one hundred and fifty crippled children referred to the Social Service Department of Indiana University. Ind. Univ. Studies No. 41, pp. 64.

Edna Gertrude Henry, Director of Social Service (at Indianapolis).

A.B., Indiana University, 1897; A.M., 1914; Ph.D., 1917.

- Report of the Social Service Department of Indiana University for 1911-1913. Ind. Univ., pp. 83.
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- 4. Report of the Social Service Department of Indiana University, 1913-15. Ind. Univ. Bull., XIV, No. 11, pp. 51.
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# (Mrs.) Helen Hunt Andrews Tafel.

A.B., Butler College, 1917; A.M., Indiana University, 1919.

 The social significance of mental disease and defect: a study based on three hundred and forty-five mental and nervous cases referred to the Social Service Department of Indiana University. Ind. Univ. Studies No. 43, pp. 58.

#### LELA FRANCES THOMPSON.

A.B., DePauw University, 1915; A.M., Indiana University, 1917.

 The social aspect of the cardiac case: a study based on one hundred and fifty-four cardiac cases referred to the Social Service Department of Indiana University. Ind. Univ. Studies No. 42, pp. 44.



# DEPARTMENT OF ZOÖLOGY

WILLIAM RAY ALLEN, Special Fellow.

A.B., Indiana University, 1913; A.M., 1914; Ph.D., 1920.

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### ARTHUR MANGUN BANTA.

A.B., Indiana University, 1903; A.M., 1904.

- The fauna of Mayfield's cave. Carnegie Institution Publ., No. 67, pp. 114, 1 plate. Sept., 1907.
- The life history of the cave salamander Spelerpes maculicaudus (Cope).
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### CHRISTIAN B. BLOSSER.

A.B., Indiana University, 1909.

 Reports on the expedition to British Guiana of the Indiana University and the Carnegie Museum, 1908. Report No. 3. The marine fishes. Ann. Carnegie Mus., VI, pp. 295-300.

### CHARLES S. DRIVER.

A.B., Bridgewater College, 1916; A.M., Indiana University, 1918.

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 1919.

#### MARION LEE DURBIN.

See Mrs. Marion Durbin Ellis

- CARL H. EIGENMANN, Dean of the Graduate School, and Professor of Zoölogy.

  A.B., Indiana University, 1886; A.M., 1887; Ph.D., 1889.
  - A review of the American Elotridinae. (With Morton W. Fordice.)
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